THE WONDERS OF NATURE AND ART;

BEING AN

ACCOUNT

OF

Whatever is moſt Curious and Remarkable throughout the WORLD;

Whether relating to its

ANIMALS, VEGETABLES, MINERALS, VOLCANOES, CATARACTS, HOT and COLD SPRINGS,

AND

Other Parts of NATURAL HISTORY;

OR, TO THE

BUILDINGS, MANUFACTURES, INVENTIONS, and DISCOVERIES of its Inhabitants.

The Whole collected from the Writings of the beſt HISTORIANS, TRAVELLERS, GEOGRAPHERS, and PHILOSOPHERS, among which are ſome *Original Manuſcripts*; interſperſed with pious OBSERVATIONS and REFLECTIONS; illuſtrated with NOTES, and adorned with COPPER-PLATES.

The SECOND EDITION.

VOL. V.

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MDCCLXVIII.

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MDCCLXVIII.

BRITISH MUSEUM

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THE

THE WONDERS OF NATURE AND ART.

CHAP. II.

Of BARBARY.

UNDER the general name of Barbary we comprehend the kingdoms of Morocco, Fez, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca, which begin at the Atlantic Ocean, and ſtretch from thence along the coaſt of the Mediterranean as far as Egypt. This vaſt tract of land is, next to Egypt, the moſt fruitful, trading, and populous part of Africa, and is generally ſuppoſed to have had it's name from the Romans, on account of the ferocity and barbarity of it's inhabitants. With reſpect to it's fertility, it muſt be obſerved, that Barca is ſcarce any thing elſe but a parched barren deſert, with very little water; there being only ſome ſmall ſpots near villages that afford a little corn and a few dates, a ſmall quantity of which the natives exchange with their neighbours for ſheep and camels. The

ſoil of Tunis is generally fruitful towards the weſt, but very poor towards the eaſt for want of water; and that part of Tripoli contiguous to Tunis is tolerably fertile. Algiers is very mountainous towards the Mediterranean; but both the hills and vallies, where they are cultivated, abound in corn, dates, almonds, olives, figs, grapes, and other fruits. The country of Fez and Morocco is finely diverſified with mountains and vaſt extended plains, moſt of them ſufficiently fruitful, and pretty well inhabited; though in many parts, as well as the reſt of Barbary, it is dry, ſandy, and barren.

MOST of this large country, now called Barbary, was famous in the times of the ancient Romans, againſt whom the Carthaginians maintained three bloody wars, the ſecond of which had almoſt put an end to the Roman power and glory, as the third did to that of Carthage, which they took and burnt to the ground. Nor did the Romans reſt contented with having deſtroyed that rival city, and brought the Carthaginians under their yoke; but they extended their conqueſts on all ſides, reduced Numidia and it's king Jugurtha, whoſe anceſtors had ſo long reigned there; and after him the brave Juba, king of Mauritania. Thus not only all the coaſt of Africa on the Mediterranean, but the inland part as far as the deſert, became ſubject to the Roman yoke, and made new provinces of their vaſt empire. In this condition it continued, during the reigns of ſeveral emperors, till, Chriſtianity having taken root in the country, it became as eminent for men of learning and piety, as it is at preſent for a race of cruel plunderers and pirates, enemies to the Chriſtian name.—But we muſt not enter into the hiſtory of Barbary, that being foreign to our deſign, which is to ſurvey it's natural and artificial rarities.

SPRINGS,

SPRINGS, CAVES, &c.

THOUGH Barbary in general is but indifferently furniſhed with ſprings of water, there are ſome which are remarkable for their qualities. Near the town of Elhamma, on the frontiers of Tunis, there is a hot ſpring, the water whereof is conveyed to the town by an aqueduct, but is ſo warm and impregnated with ſulphur, that it can ſcarce be drank till it has been expoſed to the air for four and twenty hours. Theſe hot baths, which have little hovels built over them to ſhelter them from the weather, are reſorted to from all parts of the kingdom. One of them is called the leper's bath, and below it the water ſtagnates and forms a pool, which perhaps may be the lake of lepers, mentioned by Leo. The water of theſe ſprings is perfectly clear, and ſoft to the palate.

NEAR the city of Conſtantina, in the kingdom of Algiers, there is a very hot ſpring, and at a little diſtance another that is ſurpriſingly cold, with a ſtone ſtructure embelliſhed with ſtatues and other ornaments. The people thereabouts, who are very ignorant, have a notion that this place was a college, the maſters and ſcholars of which being very wicked were turned into theſe ſtatues. Nor is this the only ſuperſtitious opinion that prevails among them, eſpecially the women; for there are great numbers of ſnails bred among theſe ſprings, which their marabbuts, a ſort of conjuring prieſts very much regarded, have perſuaded them are malicious devils that do them all the hurt they can, giving them violent fevers and other diſeaſes; and the credulity of thoſe poor people the marabbuts fail not to turn to their own advantage.

IN the ſame province of Conſtantina Dr. Shaw takes notice of other hot ſprings, called hammam meſkouteen, the ſilent or inchanted baths, ſituated on a low ground ſurrounded with mountains. The water of theſe fountains is of an intenſe heat, and at a ſmall diſtance there are others which upon compariſon are of as intenſe a coldneſs; perhaps therefore theſe may be the ſame with thoſe mentioned in the preceding paragraph. We may judge of the heat of theſe ſulphureous ſprings by what the doctor tells us, that they will boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour; and by what he farther obſerves, that the rocky ground the water runs over, to the diſtance ſometimes of a hundred feet, is diſſolved or rather calcined by it. When the ſubſtance of the rock is ſoft and uniform, then the water, by making every way equal impreſſions, forms it into the ſhape of cones or hemiſpheres, about ſix feet high, and nearly of the ſame diameter; which the Arabs * maintain to be ſo many tents of their predeceſſors turned into ſtone: but when theſe rocks, beſides their ſoft chalky ſubſtance, contain ſome layers of harder matter, not ſo eaſily diſſolved, then, in proportion to the reſiſtance the water has met with, we are entertained with a confuſion of traces and channels, diſtinguiſhed by the Arabs into ſheep, camels, and horſes; nay, into men, women, and children, whom they ſuppoſe to have undergone the like fate with their habitations.

THE ſound occaſioned by the trampling of horſes over the ground about theſe fountains makes

* It is to be obſerved, that Barbary is inhabited by three ſorts of people, Moors, Turks, and Arabs, theſe laſt living in tents, and their chief riches conſiſting in their cattle. The Moors are diſtinguiſhed into whites and blacks.

it

it probable that it is hollow underneath; and our author ſuppoſes, that the ſubterraneous air eſcaping continually through the ſprings may cauſe that mixture of ſhrill, murmuring, and deep ſounds, which, according to the direction of the wind and the motion of the external air, iſſue out along with the water. The Arabs affirm theſe ſounds to be the muſic of the fairies, who are ſuppoſed in a particular manner to make their abode at this place, and to be the grand agents in all theſe extraordinary appearances.

THE doctor mentions another curioſity proceeding from the quality of the water of theſe ſprings, which is, that the chalky ſtone being diſſolved into a fine impalpable powder, and carried down afterwards with the ſtream, lodges itſelf upon the ſides of the channel, nay ſometimes upon the lips of the fountains themſelves, or embracing twigs, ſtraws, and other bodies in it's way, immediately hardens and ſhoots into a bright fibrous ſubſtance, forming itſelf at the ſame time into a variety of glittering figures and beautiful cryſtallizations.

BESIDES thoſe already enumerated, there are ſeveral other mineral ſprings in the kingdom of Algiers and other parts of Barbary, either moderately warm and proper to bathe in, or too hot for that intention. There are alſo divers ſprings and rivers, whoſe names doctor Shaw has given us, which are either very ſalt or brackiſh; and yet the Arabs, by long uſe and cuſtom, are very well reconciled to the taſte of the water. To theſe we may add the ſalt-pits of Arzew, which, are about ſix miles in compaſs, and appear like a large lake in winter, but are dry in ſummer, the water being then exhaled and the ſalts left behind cryſtallized.

IN the province of Ducala, in the kingdom of Morocco, there is a town called Maitbir, upon a mountain of the ſame name, noted for it's hundred wells, or rather caverns, cut down into the ſolid rock, which were probably deſigned for magazines to lay up corn in, where they pretend it will keep a hundred years *. The common people, however, have a notion that they conceal ſome treaſure, and accordingly they let themſelves down by ropes, with lights in their hands, in order to find it out; but we do not learn that they have made any diſcovery of that nature. Theſe wells, as they are called, conſiſt of ſeveral ſtories one under another,

* It is certain that wheat may be preſerved even longer than a hundred years by proper management. In order to this it muſt at firſt be ſhifted from place to place with a ſhovel every fifteen days, for at leaſt ſix months ſucceſſively, and afterwards once a month, or not quite ſo often, for ſome time longer. When the duſt and other impurities are diſperſed by this proceeding, and the corn has exhaled all it's fiery particles, it may be kept as long as you pleaſe, provided the roof of the granary be of a reaſonable height, and all humidity excluded. But to prevent the bad impreſſions of the air, and keep out vermin, the moſt effectual method is to ſpread a little unſlaked lime over the heap, and ſprinkle it with water, whereby a ſort of cruſt is formed upon the ſurface of the corn, of two or three inches thickneſs.—The memoirs of the royal academy of ſciences inform us, that in the year 1707 a magazine of corn was opened in the citadel of Mentz, which had been ſtored up in 1578, and the bread made of it was very good. At the caſtle of Sedan in Champagne the Abbé de Louvois was ſhewn a heap of corn that had been preſerved there a hundred and ten years, notwithſtanding the moiſture of the place at firſt made it ſprout up to the height of eighteen inches. Theſe ſhoots, dying and rotting for want of air, ſunk down upon the corn they ſprung from; and this glutinous compoſt, incorporating with the grain underneath it, formed a very thick cruſt, which dried and hardened, and preſerved the reſt of the heap. Some bread made of this corn was ſent to the French court, and gave great ſatisfaction.

the loweſt whereof is very large, and leads to ſeveral cells, in which are ſprings of freſh water. As there are many windings and turnings in theſe caverns, it is ſaid thoſe who deſcend into them are often loſt, eſpecially if their lights happen to go out. This we are told was the caſe of a certain adventurer, who had the good fortune however to ſtumble upon ſome animal that lived in theſe ſubterraneous apartments, which led him out through a natural paſſage in the rock, that opened into a thick wood at the foot of the mountain. Upon the diſcovery of this new opening, people flocked thither with their pick-axes, in order to dig in ſearch of the ſuppoſed treaſure, but inſtead of that met with ſome freſh ſprings, which filled the whole place with water.

FOSSILS.

UNDER this article we ſhall find little remarkable in Barbary, though the country is not deſtitute of mines of copper, iron, and other metals. Near Algiers and Bona, ſays Dr. Shaw, a ſoft flaky ſtone lies immediately upon the ſurface of the earth, which is frequently gilded over with gold-like ſpangles; as the ſparry matter, that fills up the fiſſures, glitters with thoſe that imitate ſilver. The common flint ſtone, our author obſerves, which moſt countries have in plenty, occurs ſo ſeldom in ſome parts of Barbary, that our merchant veſſels have received ſome of them in the Downs for ballaſt, and diſpoſed of them at Algiers for ſeven ſhillings the quintal.

BESIDES the common mould or ſoil of Algiers, there are two or three kinds of pipe and potter's clay, the former of which generally burns red. Fuller's earth is alſo dug in great abundance; to

which we may add the ſteatites or ſoap-earth, which is in great eſteem in the bagnios for cleanſing and ſoftening the ſkin. Lac lunæ, which the Arabs ſometimes uſe in ſtaunching blood, lies uſually in the ſutures of ſome laminous rocks in one part of the country, and a hard ſpecies of almagra or Spaniſh bole occurs frequently in another.

THE ſelenites ſometimes ſpreads itſelf over whole acres of the woody and mountainous diſtricts, and a tranſparent, yellow, and fleſh-coloured talc, or gypſum, often expands itſelf in thin cakes over ſome rocky parts of the country. In pounding the gypſum we often meet with a number of ſmall gold-like nodules, of a regular mathematical figure; but the gold and ſilver-like marcaſites or pyrites are irregular with regard to their ſhape, being ſometimes formed like the meſentery, kidney, or ſuch ſort of figures as they uſually aſſume in other places.

THE iron of the kingdom of Algiers is white and good, but is not found in any great quantity. Some of the mountains have a rich ponderous ore, with a mixture of cinnabar, but no mines have been opened there, as Dr. Shaw was informed. They have rich lead ores, from which large quantities of that metal might be obtained, if their mines were under a better regulation. Their method of refining it is to put layers of wood and ore alternately upon each other; and ſetting the pile on fire, they frequently obtain eighty pounds of metal from one quintal of ore.

THE regencies of Algiers and Tunis look with an envious eye upon the ſilver and copper mines of the Tingitanians, though our author ſuppoſes, that their mountains, by farther ſearches and experiments, might probably be found to contain the

ſame

ſame materials, eſpecially copper; for in the mountain of Fernan there are large ſtrata of ponderous ſtones, tinged all over with green efflorescences; and Dr. Shaw had a ſpecimen from that place which ſeemed to ſhoot into grains of tin in no ſmall quantity. The mountain Tmolga likewiſe abounds with ſtones of the ſame quality, being in all appearance very ſtrongly impregnated with copper.

VEGETABLES.

THE cicer, or chich pea, is very much cultivated and eſteemed in Barbary. This ſort of pulſe is called garvanços, and is moſt valued when parched, being a favourite food to perſons of all ages and diſtinctions. For this purpoſe there are copper-pans and ovens in almoſt every ſtreet of the eaſtern cities; and the method of parching theſe peaſe ſeems to be of great antiquity. When parched they are called leblebby, and ſome writers have taken them for the pigeon's dung mentioned in ſcripture at the ſiege of Samaria. It is certain, ſays Dr. Shaw, that this pulſe is pointed at one end, and acquires an aſh-colour in parching; and as the firſt circumſtance anſwers to the uſual figure, the other to the uſual colour of pigeon's dung, the ſuppoſition is not intirely groundleſs.

THEY have a ſmall parſnip in Barbary, ſomewhat like a turnip, with fibrous roots, which has a taſte ſo agreeably pungent, that it is very much eſteemed, and ſold by weight. Beſides our common garden herbs, they have calabaſhes, and ſeveral other productions of the vegetable kind, which give a reliſh to their ſoups and ragouts; nor ſhould their coriander be omitted, which has always a principal ſhare in the Mooriſh cookery.

Colliflowers arrive to great perfection in Barbary inſomuch that Dr. Shaw tells us he has ſeen ſeveral that were very white, ſolid, and compact, meaſuring a yard or more in circumference. Their muſk-melons are little ſuperior to ours in the richneſs of their taſte, but their water-melons exceed any that are raiſed in the northern climates. This laſt ſort (which they call dillah) ſeems to be providentially calculated for the ſouthern countries, as it affords a cool refreſhing juice, quenches thirſt, mitigates feveriſh diſorders, and thereby compenſates, in a great degree, for the exceſſive heats to which theſe countries are ſubject.

WE have already given an account of the palm or date tree, of which there are great numbers in Barbary; but we may add one particular relating to it, for which we are indebted to the learned traveller ſo often quoted. It is uſual (he ſays) with perſons of better faſhion in this country to entertain their gueſts at a wedding, the birth of a child, or upon any extraordinary occaſion, with the honey (as they call it) of the date-tree. This they procure by cutting off the head of one of the more vigorous kinds, and ſcooping the top of the trunk into the ſhape of a baſon. When the ſap aſcends, it lodges in this cavity, at the rate of three quarts or a gallon a day, during the firſt week or fortnight; after which the quantity daily diminiſhes, and in ſix weeks or two months the juice is intirely conſumed, the tree becomes dry, and is fit for nothing but fire-wood or timber. This liquor, which has a more luſcious ſweetneſs than honey, is of the conſiſtence of a thin ſyrup, but ſoon grows tart and ropy, acquiring an intoxicating quality, and yielding by diſtillation an agreeable ſpirit.

THERE

THERE is a ſhrub very common in the deſerts of Barbary, which has the leaves, prickles, flower, and fruit of the jujeb, only with this difference, that the fruit is round, ſmaller, and more luſcious, and the branches are not ſo jointed or crooked. This fruit is in great repute, and ſold in the markets all over the ſouthern diſtricts of the kingdoms of Algiers and Tunis.

IN thoſe kingdoms they have a ſpecies of apricot, uſually of the ſize and ſhape of a nectarine, and with the ſame property of not parting from the ſtone. The eating of theſe is never attended with a ſurfeit, whereas the common apricot is very dangerous, occaſions a variety of fevers and dyſenteries, and is called by a name that ſignifies the killer of the Chriſtians. They have two or three ſpecies of plums and cherries, but none of them either in plenty or delicious. The cherry has been formerly in ſuch eſteem, that it continues to be called the berry of the king. Their nectarines are larger than ours, and of a better taſte; and their peaches, beſides their excellent flavour, will commonly weigh ten ounces. Some of their pomegranates are three or four inches in diameter, and of a pound weight. Nor ought we to omit the prickly pear, called the fig of the Chriſtians, perhaps (as Dr. Shaw ſuppoſes) from it's being originally brought from Europe. Many families live upon it during the months of Auguſt and September; though it is never known to tinge the urine of a bloody colour, as it is ſaid to do in America. The walnut and olive-tree are propagated all over Barbary, but the haſel, filbert, gooſeberry and currant-tree, are ſcarce to be met with in the country. In the years 1723 and 1724, the locuſts made vaſt deſtruction among the vineyards of Algiers, before which time (ſays our author) their

wine was not inferior to the beſt Hermitage, either in briſkneſs or flavour; and, though it is much degenerated ſince, it may ſtill diſpute the preference with the wine of Spain or Portugal. The lemon and Seville orange-tree, eſpecially the former, are in a continued ſucceſſion of fruit and bloſſoms; but the China orange is not a native of the country, and only bears towards the latter end of autumn.

WE ſhall conclude this article with an obſervation of Dr. Shaw's relating to the gardens of Barbary, namely, that they are not laid out with any method, beauty, or deſign, the whole being nothing but a medley and confuſion of trees, with beds of cabbages, turnips, beans, &c. and ſometimes wheat and barley diſperſed among them. Fine walks, parterres, flower-plats, &c. would be to theſe Africans the loſs of ſo much profitable ſoil; as planting in order and regularity, the ſtudy of ſoil and compoſts, or the aiming at any improvements and diſcoveries, would be deviating from the practice of their anceſtors, whoſe footſteps they follow with the utmoſt reverence and devotion.

ANIMALS.

OF all the animals of Barbary, the lion, uſually called the king of beaſts, ſeems to merit our firſt attention. This fierce animal, which rules with a tyrannical empire over the inhabitants of the woods and deſerts, has a head very large, and not at all proportioned to his body. He has a thick flattiſh noſe, a very wide mouth, red fiery eyes, hollow, and looking ſomewhat awry. His neck is adorned with a fine ſhagged mane, but the lioneſs wants this ornament. He has a long tail,

very

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very ſtrong legs, and each of his fore feet has five diſtinct claws, the hinder but four, all crooked, ſharp, and exceeding hard. The hair of ſome lions is curled, of others lank and thin, and always of a dunniſh colour; for thoſe who pretend there are black, white, and red lions, are groſly miſtaken, none ſuch being to be found, except thoſe which owe their birth to heraldry or painting. The roaring of the lion is frightful, and every beaſt dreads his approach. He is of a very ſavage nature, preying upon other animals, chiefly the wild boar, which yet (as Dr. Shaw informs us) hath ſometimes been known to defend itſelf with ſo much bravery, that the victory has inclined to neither ſide, the carcaſſes of them both having been found lying dead together, all in gore and mangled to pieces.

SOME have reported that the lion is afraid of women, and that, upon taking up a ſtick and calling him names, he will immediately loſe his fierceneſs, and fly from the flocks they are attending. Something of this kind (ſays our learned traveller) perhaps may have happened when they have been well ſatiated with food, at which time the Arabs pretend the lions have ſo little courage, that they can ſeize upon their prey, and reſcue it out of their jaws. But theſe inſtances are very rare, it oftener falling out, that lions devour women as well as men, for want of other creatures. Fire is what they are moſt afraid of; and yet, notwithſtanding all the precaution the Arabs take in this reſpect, together with the barking of their dogs, and the noiſe themſelves make all night long, it frequently happens, that a lion will leap into the midſt of an incloſure, and bring out along with him a ſheep or a goat. If theſe ravages are repeated, the Arabs take notice where the lion enters,

ters, and there dig a pit, covering it over ſlightly with reeds, or ſmall branches of trees, into which he falls and is taken.

THE hunting of the lion, according to Dr. Shaw, is in ſome reſpects like the method of taking elephants heretofore deſcribed. On this occaſion a whole diſtrict is ſummoned to appear, who, forming themſelves into a circle, incloſe a ſpace of three, four, or five miles in compaſs, according to the number of people and quality of the ground that is pitched upon to be the ſcene of action. The footmen advance firſt, ruſhing into the thickets with their dogs and ſpears to put up the game; whilſt the horſemen, keeping a little behind, are always ready to charge, as ſoon as the wild beaſt makes a ſally. Thus they proceed, ſtill contracting their circle, till they all at laſt either cloſe in together, or meet with ſomething to divert them. This ſort of paſtime is ſometimes very agreeable; for different kinds of animals being by this means driven together, they ſeldom fail of having chaces after hares, jackals, hyenas, and other creatures, as well as the lion. But this ſport is frequently attended with fatal accidents; for it is a common obſervation, that when the lion perceives himſelf in danger, nay ſometimes the very moment he is rouſed, he will ſeize directly upon the perſon that is neareſt to him, and, rather than quit his hold, ſuffer himſelf to be cut to pieces.

WE have already taken ſome notice of the jackal, which creature, as well as the fiyah ghuſh, or black-eared cat, is ſuppoſed to be the lion's provider; but our author thinks it may be doubted whether there be any ſuch friendly intercourſe between ſuch different animals. In the night-time indeed, as the pſalmiſt obſerves, when all the

beaſts

beaſts of the foreſt do move, theſe, like other kinds of beaſts, are prowling after ſuſtenance; and when the ſun riſes, and the lion betakes himſelf to his den, both the ſiyah ghuſh and the jackal have been ſeen gnawing ſuch carcaſſes as the lion is ſuppoſed to have fed upon the night before. This, and the promiſcuous noiſe which the jackal is often heard to make with the lion, are the only circumſtances Dr. Shaw is acquainted with in favour of the vulgar opinion.—The jackal yelps every night about the gardens and villages, feeding upon roots, fruit, and carrion. Mr. Ray ſuppoſes it to be the lupus aureus of the ancients; but what Oppian deſcribes as ſuch is a creature of much more ferocity.

NEXT to the lion, among the quadrupeds of a leſs tameable nature, we ought to mention the panther, whoſe ſkin is of a yellow colour, beautifully marked with round black ſpots, his hair ſhort and moſſy, and who is thought to equal, if not exceed the lion in it's ſavage qualities*. This creature is very ſwift, and attacks both men and beaſts; but his uſual method of ſeizing his prey is jumping upon it by ſurpriſe. His tongue is rough as a file, and his ſkin is in great requeſt for

* Notwithſtanding the natural ferocity of the lion, ſome authors give us inſtances of it's generous and grateful temper. Father Maimbourg, in his hiſtory of the Croiſades, tells us of a gentleman that had delivered a lion from a monſtrous ſerpent, which had twiſted itſelf round the body of that animal, and would have ſtung him to death if the gentleman had not killed it with his ſpear. The lion, ſenſible of the kindneſs done him, accompanied his benefactor like a dog during his ſtay in the Holy Land; and when he embarked for Europe, the maſter of the ſhip refuſing to take the lion on board, he ſwam after the ſhip till his ſtrength being exhauſted he was drowned. But our readers will not expect we ſhould vouch for the truth of ſtories of this nature.

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it's beauty, and bears a large price, being not very common. The female panther, like the lioneſs, has two rows of nipples, giving ſuck to three, ſometimes four or five whelps at a time. The Arabs ſay, that when the young ones breed their teeth they are ſeized with a fever, which generally carries off three out of four; and that this is the reaſon why their numbers at preſent are ſo inconſiderable. But whether this is owing to ſuch a diſeaſe, to a greater diſperſion of the Arabs, or to the eaſier way of killing them ſince the invention of fire-arms, it is certain (ſays our judicious author) there would be great difficulty at preſent to procure a fiftieth part of the number of wild beaſts that Africa may be ſuppoſed to have furniſhed in the time of the ancient Romans.

AFTER the lion and panther, the dubbah or hyena is the fierceſt of the wild beaſts of Barbary; but of this animal we have formerly given a deſcription *. We may add however, from Dr. Shaw, that the creature naturally limps upon his hinder right leg, notwithſtanding which imperfection he is tolerably ſwift, and cannot be ſo eaſily run down as the wild boar. His neck is remarkably ſtiff, ſo that in looking behind, or ſnatching obliquely at any object, he is obliged to move his whole body, in the ſame manner as the hog, the badger, and crocodile. His colour is dun, inclining to be reddiſh, with ſome ſtreaks of a dark brown; and the hair upon his neck is near a ſpan long. When any of theſe creatures are taken, the Arabs take great care to bury the head, leſt the brain, according to their ſuperſtition, ſhould be made uſe of in ſorcery and inchantment.

* See the account we have given of the animals in Turky in Aſia.

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THERE is an animal in Barbary called faadh, which agrees with the leopard in being ſpotted, but differs in other reſpects; for the ſkin is not only of a deeper colour, but much coarſer; neither is the creature itſelf of ſo fierce a nature: however, the Arabs imagine it to be a ſpurious offſpring between a lion and a leopardeſs. It feeds upon carrion, ſometimes upon roots and herbs, and muſt be in great neceſſity if it attacks a ſheep or goat. It can therefore hardly be taken for the lupus cervarius of the ancients, which is deſcribed to be a much fiercer creature.

THERE are two other animals of this country marked like a leopard, but their ſpots are of a darker colour, and the fur ſomewhat longer and ſofter. The one is of the cat-kind, about a third leſs than a full-grown leopard, and Dr. Shaw thinks it may be taken for a ſpecies of the lynx, or rather for the leſſer panther of Oppian. The other has a ſmall pointed head, with ſuch teeth, feet, &c. as ſhew it to be of the weaſel kind. It has a round ſlender body, about a foot long; and it's tail is regularly marked with a ſucceſſion of black and white ringlets.

THE horſe, (ſays our author) formerly the glory and diſtinguiſhing badge of Numidia, hath of late years very much degenerated in Barbary; or rather the Arabs have been diſcouraged from breeding up a fine race, which they were ſure would one time or other fall into the hands of the Turkiſh officers. A valuable and well taught Barbary horſe (beſides the ſuppoſed quality of never lying down, and of ſtanding ſtill when the rider drops his bridle) is to have a long pace, and to ſtop ſhort, if required, in a full career. No other motions are practiſed or admired in that country, it being reckoned very impolite among

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the Arabs to trot or amble. But how much ſoever the Barbs may have formerly been eſteemed, at preſent the doctor tells us the Egyptian horſes have deſervedly the preference of all others for ſize and beauty, the ſmalleſt of them being uſually ſixteen hands high, and all of them ſhaped, according to their phraſe, like the antelope.

AMONGST other obſervations relating to the kingdoms of Algiers and Tunis, our author mentions this remarkable particular, viz. that a gelding or a weather is rarely if ever known in thoſe countries; for ſuch males of ſheep, or of the black cattle, as are more than ſufficient for the preſervation of the ſpecies, have only their teſticles ſqueezed or diſcompoſed when they are about three months old; the Mahometans accounting it an act of cruelty to caſtrate any creatures except thoſe of their own ſpecies.

LET us now take a view of ſome of the moſt curious birds of Barbary, as they are deſcribed by the learned traveller we have ſo often mentioned, to whom the public is much indebted for his accurate obſervations on ſeveral parts of that country. A remarkable animal of the feathered tribe is the houbaara, which is as big as a capon, and it's body of a longer ſhape. It frequents the confines of the deſerts, and feeds upon little ſhrubs and inſects. The body is of a light dun or yellowiſh colour, interſperſed all over with little brown marks; but the larger feathers of the wing are black, having each of them a white ſpot near the middle. Thoſe of the neck are whitiſh with black ſtreaks, but are chiefly remarkable for their length, and for being erected when it is attacked or provoked. It's bill is about an inch and a half long, flat, like that of the ſtarling; and it's legs agree in ſhape, and in the want of the hinder toe, with thoſe

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thoſe of the buſtard. Nothing can be more entertaining (adds the doctor) than to ſee this bird purſued by the hawk, and what various ſtratagems it makes uſe of in order to eſcape it's enemy.

THERE is a bird called by the Arabs the boo-onk or long-neck, becauſe in walking and ſearching for food it throws out it's neck ſeven or eight inches. It is of the bittern kind, ſomewhat leſs than the lapwing, having ſhort and ſlender legs, of a green colour. It's bill is likewiſe green, three inches long, and in ſhape reſembling that of a ſtork. The neck, breaſt, and belly are of a light yellow, but the back and upper part of the wings are of a jet black. The tail is ſhort, and the feathers of the neck are long and ſometimes ſtreaked with white.

THE emſeeſy, or ox-bird, which is about the ſize of a curlew, is very beautiful, being all over of a milk-white colour, except the bill and legs, which are of a fine red. It generally feeds in the meadows, along with cattle, but it's fleſh is not ſavoury, and ſoon corrupts.

THEY have a ſpecies of thruſh in Barbary which is juſtly admired for the richneſs of it's plumage. The head, neck, and back are of a fine light green, the wings of a lark-colour, the breaſt white and ſpotted like the thruſh's, the rump of an elegant yellow, and the ends of the feathers of the wings and tail are tipped with the ſame colour. This bird is not very common, appearing only in the ſummer-months, when figs are in ſeaſon.

THE Capſa ſparrow, ſo called from a city of that name in Tunis, is a curioſity that deſerves our notice as much as any other of this kind. It is about as big as the common houſe-ſparrow, and is frequent in the date-villages to the weſtward of the lake of Marks. The colour of it is like that

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of a lark, except on the breaſt, which is ſomewhat lighter, and ſhines like a pigeon's. But what this bird is admired for is it's ſweet melodious note, infinitely preferable, ſays Dr. Shaw, to that of the Canary bird or nightingale. On this account ſeveral attempts have been made to bring it to Kairoan and other parts of the country; but it has been always found of ſo delicate a nature, as to languiſh and pine away upon being removed from it's native climate.

THE rhaad or ſafſaf is a gregarious bird, of which there are two ſpecies in Barbary, the ſmaller whereof is as big as an ordinary pullet, but the larger is about the ſize of the houbaara, differing alſo from the leſſer in having a black head, with a tuft of dark blue feathers immediately below it. Each ſpecies of them has a white belly, the back and the wings of a buff-colour ſpotted with brown, the tail lighter, but marked all along with tranſverſe ſtreaks of black. The word rhaad denotes thunder in the language of the country, and is ſuppoſed to be a name given to this bird from the noiſe it makes, like our partridges, in ſpringing from the ground; as ſafſaf, the other name, expreſſes the beating of the air when the bird is got upon the wing.

ANOTHER bird of the gregarious kind is called the kitawiah, which, like the rhaad, wants the hinder toe, and frequents the moſt barren parts of Barbary, as the rhaad does the more fertile parts of the country. In ſize and ſhape it reſembles a dove, and, like ſome birds of that kind, has ſhort feathered feet. It's body is of a livid colour, with black ſpots; the belly is blackiſh, and upon the throat there is the figure of a half-moon in a beautiful yellow. Each feather of the tail has a white

white ſpot at the extremity, and the middle one is longer than the reſt, and pointed. The fleſh is of the ſame colour with that of the rhaad, and is not of an agreeable flavour, but of eaſy digeſtion.

AMONG the more curious birds of Barbary, we may add to the eagle kind, ſays our author, the karaburno, an aſh-coloured hawk, about the bigneſs of our buzzard, with a black bill, yellow ſhort feet, the back of a bluiſh colour, the pinions of the wings black, with a whitiſh tail and belly.

THEY have a kind of water hen in Barbary, with a white ſpotted wing and dark geen feet. It is leſs than a plover, has a black bill, an inch and a half long, the belly and breaſt of a dark brown colour, and the back ſtill darker. The rump is white below, and variegated above with black and white ſtreaks.

ANOTHER bird or two may ſuffice for a ſpecimen of the fowls of Barbary, amongſt which our author takes notice of a ſort of ſhoveler, of the bigneſs of a wigeon. It has red feet, a broad flat bill, black, and armed with teeth; it's breaſt, belly, and head are of an iron-colour, and upon each wing there are three ſpots of blue, white, and green, contiguous to each other.

THERE is another kind of ſhoveler ſomewhat larger than the former, but with a leſſer bill, a reddiſh neck, and a head adorned with a ſmall tuft of tawny feathers. It has a white belly, but the back is diverſified with ſtreaks of black and white alternately. The feathers of the tail are pointed, and thoſe of the wings have each of them a black and white ſpot contiguous to each other. The extremity of the bill is black, and the feet are bluer than thoſe of the wigeon.

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As to animals of the lizard and ſerpent kind, moſt of thoſe we have deſcribed in Egypt are common in ſeveral parts of Barbary, particularly the thaibanne, a large ſerpent, of whoſe ſkin Dr. Shaw ſays he has ſeen purſes made, which were four inches or more in diameter.

THE zurreike is another ſerpent common in the deſerts, which is uſually about fifteen inches long, of a ſlender body, and remarkable, as the name ſeems to imply, for darting itſelf along with great ſwiftneſs; which makes Dr. Shaw's conjecture, of it's being the jaculus of the antients, not improbable.

BUT the moſt malignant of this claſs of animals is the leffah, which is of a leſs uniform turn of body than the ſerpent laſt deſcribed, and ſeldom above twelve inches in length. The torrida dipſas of Lucan anſwers very well both to the name (which ſignifies to burn) and the venomous quality of this ſerpent.

THE taitah is another ſpecies of ſerpent, between which and the leffah the Arabs ſay there is the ſame antipathy as naturaliſts have long ago aſſigned between the chameleon and the viper; and that a drop of clammy juice let fall by the taitah upon the leffah will throw the latter into ſuch convulſions as are attended with almoſt immediate death.

FEW ſpecies of inſects, and creatures under that denomination, occurred to Dr. Shaw in thoſe parts of Africa he travelled in, but ſuch as have been already deſcribed by naturaliſts. The moſt curious ſpecies of the butterfly kind is near four inches from the extremity of one wing to that of the other, being all over beautifully ſtreaked with murrey and yellow. The edges of the lower wings indeed are to be excepted, which are indented, and

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terminate in a narrow ſtrip an inch long, bordered with yellow in an elegant manner. What adds to the beauty is a ſpot of a carnation colour near the tail.

THE rareſt kind of the adder-bolt is one with a broad tail, of a ruſty colour, three or four inches in length, and the wings bright and ſpotted: but there is another (ſays the doctor) of the ſame ſize, with a body more cylindrical, and differing little in form from the common locuſt.

A BEETLE with one horn, of the colour and ſize of a cheſnut, is a ſpecies to be met with, but the leaſt frequent of any. It's head is notched round, or indented, and it's feet broad, like thoſe of the gryllo-talpa or mole-cricket. The leſſer naſicornes are every where met with, and a variety of elaſtic beetles.

AMONGST the ſpecies of locuſts to be found in Barbary, our author mentions one of three inches in length, of a brown colour, with the fore legs armed with ſtrong horny claws. Another ſort, of the ſame ſize, and of the cucullated kind, has it's upper wings ſtreaked with a light green, and the membranaceous ones chequered with fleſh-colour, brown, and ſcarlet. There is a third ſpecies about two inches long, with beautiful green wings, whoſe chief characteriſtics are two antennæ, which project from the forehead like a couple of feathers.

WE have already given an account of locuſts in general*; but to what we have ſaid on that ſubject it may not be amiſs to ſubjoin what Dr. Shaw has related concerning thoſe devouring in-

* See our deſcription of the animals of Perſia.

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ſects. Thoſe which the doctor ſaw in Barbary, in 1724 and 1725, were much larger than our common graſhoppers, having brown ſpotted wings, with legs and bodies of a bright yellow. The wind having been ſome time ſoutherly, they firſt appeared towards the end of March; and in the middle of April their numbers were ſo much increaſed, that in the heat of the day they formed themſelves into large bodies, appearing like a ſucceſſion of clouds, and darkening the ſun. About the middle of May they began to retire into proper parts of the country to depoſit their eggs, and in the month following the young brood began gradually to make it's appearance. It was ſurpriſing to obſerve (ſays our author) that as ſoon as they were hatched, they immediately collected themſelves together, forming compact bodies of ſeveral hundred yards ſquare, which marching forwards over trees, walls, and houſes, eat up every plant in their way, and let nothing eſcape them. To ſtop the progreſs of theſe deſtructive animals, the inhabitants of the country made trenches all over their fields and gardens, and filled them with water; or elſe endeavoured to deſtroy them by placing in a row great quantities of heath, ſtubble, or ſuch combuſtible materials, and ſetting them on fire on their approach. All this was to no purpoſe; the trenches were quickly filled up, and the fires put out by infinite ſwarms ſucceeding one another; whilſt the front ſeemed regardleſs of danger, and the rear preſſed on ſo cloſe that a retreat was impoſſible. After one of theſe bodies had been in motion for a day or two (ſays our author) others were hatched to glean after them, which they did in a very effectual manner, gnawing off the young branches and even the bark of

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ſuch trees as had eſcaped before, with the loſs only of their fruit and foliage.

In this manner, adds the doctor, they lived near a month upon the ruin of every thing that was green or juicy, till they arrived at their full growth, and, by caſting their ſkins, threw off their worm-like ſtate. To prepare themſelves for this metamorphoſis, they hang by their hinder feet to a twig, branch, the corner of a ſtone, or the like; when by an undulating motion, uſed on that occaſion, their heads firſt appear, and their bodies ſoon after. The whole transformation, ſays our author, is performed in ſeven or eight minutes, after which they lie in a languiſhing condition for a little time; but when their wings are hardened by the air and ſun, and the moiſture dried up which was left upon caſting their ſloughs, they returned again to their former voracity, with an addition both of ſtrength and agility. However, they did not continue long in this ſtate before they were intirely diſperſed, as their parents were before, after laying their eggs to prepare for a freſh offspring.

These inſects, ſays the doctor, ſprinkled with ſalt and fried, are in taſte not much unlike our cray-fiſh. The Jews were allowed to eat them *; and Ludolphus has a diſſertation wherein he endeavours to prove that the quails the Iſraelites fed upon in the wilderneſs were only a ſpecies of locuſts: but the pſalmiſt, in calling them feathered fowls, ſeems intirely to contradict that ſuppoſition. However, to engage in controverſies of this kind is foreign to our purpoſe.

* Levit. xi. 22.

THE ſcorpion, continues our author, in conſideration of it's noxious qualities, may claim the next place after the locuſt. Some of the ſpecies are long and narrow, others rounder and larger; but each of them have a tail conſiſting of ſix joints, not ſeven, as ſome ancient writers have aſſerted. Thoſe on this ſide of mount Atlas are not very hurtful, the ſting being only attended with a ſlight fever, and the application of a little Venice treacle ſoon aſſwaging the pain. But the ſcorpions of Zaab, and moſt other parts of the deſert, as they are larger and of a darker complexion, ſo their poiſon is more malignant, and frequently proves mortal.—The bite of the boolakaz or rhax is of the ſame venomous nature; and it is computed that twenty or thirty perſons die every year by the hurt received from this animal and the leffah.

THE method of curing the bite of theſe creatures is either to burn the part, or to make a deep inciſion, and cut away the contiguous fleſh. Sometimes the patient is buried up to the head in the hot ſands, or in pits heated for that purpoſe. When no great danger is apprehended, they only apply hot aſhes, or the powder of alhenna, with two or three thin ſlices of an onion, tying them as a cataplaſm upon the part affected. Our author never heard that olive-oil was made uſe of, which has lately been found a ſpecific remedy againſt the bite of the viper, being rubbed warm upon the wound *.

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* Of this we have ſeveral inſtances recorded in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, particularly thoſe of William Oliver and his wife, who followed the buſineſs of catching and ſelling vipers, and offered themſelves to be bit by any viper that ſhould be procured, truſting to the virtue of a remedy they had

HAVING mentioned the viper, it may not be improper to give a deſcription of that ſerpent,

had accidentally hit on in trying various things, which was only oil of olives, known by the name of ſallet-oil, from it's being frequently uſed with ſallet. On the 1ſt of June, 1734, in the preſence of a great number of perſons, the ſaid William Oliver was bit by an old black viper or adder, brought by one of the company, upon the wriſt and joint of the thumb of the right hand, ſo that drops of blood came from the wounds. He ſaid that he immediately felt a violent pain and ſhooting, both to the top of his thumb and up his arm, even before the viper was looſened from his hand, and ſoon after he felt a pain like that of burning. In a few minutes his eyes began to look red and fiery, and to water very much; and in leſs than half an hour he perceived the venom ſeize his heart with a pricking pain, attended with faintneſs and ſhortneſs of breath. Upon this he fell into violent cold ſweats, and preſently after his belly began to ſwell, with great gripings and pains in his back, attended with vomitings and purgings. During the violence of theſe ſymptoms he affirmed that his ſight was gone twice for ſeveral minutes, but that his hearing continued all the while. He ſaid that in his former experiments he had never deferred making uſe of his remedy longer than when he perceived the effects of the venom reaching his heart; but this time, being willing to ſatisfy the company thoroughly, and depending on the oil, which had never failed him, he forbore to apply it till he found himſelf exceeding ill and quite giddy. — About an hour and a quarter after he was bit, a chafing-diſh of burning charcoal was brought in, and his arm held over it as near as he could bear it, while his wife rubbed in with her hand the ſallet-oil, which Dr. Mortimer had brought along with him, leſt they ſhould privately add any thing to it. By this means the pain ſoon abated, though the ſwelling did not much diminiſh, and violent vomitings and purgings enſued, with a low and interrupted pulſe, ſo that the phyſicians preſent thought proper to give him ſeveral cordial draughts, from which he was not ſenſible of any great relief, but by drinking a glaſs or two of oil he ſeemed to have ſome eaſe. In this dangerous condition he was put to bed, and his arm again bathed over a pan of charcoal; but, continuing to complain much of his back and belly, the doctor adviſed his wife to rub them with ſallet-oil heated, which ſhe did accordingly,

famed not only for the exceeding venomouſneſs of it's bite, which is one of the moſt dangerous poiſons in the animal kingdom, but alſo for the great uſefulneſs of it's fleſh in medicine. This remarkable reptile has the biggeſt and flatteſt head of all the ſerpent kind, it's ſnout being not unlike that of a hog, with ſixteen ſmall immoveable teeth in each jaw, beſides two other large, ſharp, hollow, canine teeth, ſituate on each ſide of the upper jaw, which are thoſe that do the miſchief. Theſe are flexible in their articulation, and are commonly laid flat along the jaw, the animal never raiſing them but when it would bite; and the roots or baſes of them are encompaſſed with a little bladder, containing a yellow inſipid ſalivous juice, which is the poiſon. It is about half a yard long,

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cordingly, whereupon he declared he found immediate eaſe, and his vomiting and purging ſoon abated. He then fell into a ſound ſleep, which was interrupted by perſons coming to ſee and inquire after him till about twelve o'clock, from which time he ſlept continually to five or ſix next morning, when he awaked and found himſelf perfectly well. On the 3d of June indeed his arm remained ſwelled, and looked red, with ſpots of yellow, but felt ſoft, and he had the perfect uſe of it, and even of his fingers, no pain or ſtiffneſs remaining.—Theſe viper-catchers ſaid they had experienced their remedy to take effect on cows, horſes, and dogs, ten hours after being bit; but as to themſelves, being frequently bit, they always carried a phial of ſallet-oil along with them, and bathed the wound immediately. If it was in the heel, they wetted the ſtocking thoroughly with the oil; if in the finger, which happened oftenеſt, they poured ſome oil into that finger of their glove, which they put on again, and thus never felt any farther inconvenience from the accident, not even ſo much as from the ſting of a bee.—The experiment was made upon the ſame man in the town-hall at Windſor, before Dr. Derham, Dr. Waterland, the phyſicians, ſurgeons, and apothecaries of that town, and ſeveral other gentlemen in the neighbourhood; all the ſymptoms of a viper-bite enſued, and the remedy was applied with the promiſed ſucceſs.

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and an inch in thickneſs; has only one row of teeth, whereas other ſerpents have two; and it's body is not fetid, though the inner parts of other ſerpents ſtink intolerably. It creeps ſlowly, and never leaps, like the reſt of the ſerpent-kind, but is nimble enough to bite when it meets with provocation. The ſcales under it's belly are of the colour of well poliſhed ſteel, and the reſt of the body is aſh-coloured or yellow, the ground ſpeckled with browniſh ſpots. The viper is a viviparous animal, bringing forth her young-ones wrapped up in thin ſkins, which break on the third day, and ſet them at liberty. She commonly brings forth to the number of twenty, but only one each day. Pliny, Galen, and others of the ancients, believed that the young killed their mother in the delivery; but this is not the only miſtake they were guilty of on the ſubject of the viper, for they ſuppoſed it eat cantharides, ſcorpions, &c. which rendered it's poiſon ſo very dangerous.

As to the manner in which the viper conveys it's poiſon, authors are ſomewhat diſagreed. Redi and Charras have each of them wrote curious pieces on the ſubject, but their hypotheſes are very different. Redi maintains, that all the venom of the animal is contained in the little bags or bladders before-mentioned, at the bottom of the two canine teeth; from whence, upon biting, the yellowiſh liquor is ſqueezed out into the wound, where, mixing with the blood and other juices, it produces ſo many dreadful ſymptoms. Charras, on the other hand, maintains that this liquor is not poiſonous; that he has given it to pigeons, without their being at all diſordered by it; that he has found the viper's bite mortal to animals after the bags have been taken clear out, as well as before; and laſtly, that the poiſon lies in the irritated ſpirits

of the viper, which it exhales in it's biting, and which are ſo cold that they curdle the blood, and ſtop the circulation. Theſe oppoſite ſyſtems are both ſupported by a number of well-atteſted experiments; but the public generally give into that of Redi, as anſwering beſt to the mechaniſm of the parts. Dr. Mead ſuppoſes it to be the true one; and adds to Redi's account, that the viper's poiſon is ſeparated from the blood by a gland lying behind the orbit of the eye, from whence there is a duct that conveys the poiſon to the bags at the teeth. Theſe teeth, he obſerves, are tubulated for the conveyance and emiſſion of the poiſon into the wound, though their hollowneſs does not reach quite to the tip of the tooth, but ends in a ſlit a little below the point, out of which the poiſon is emitted.—Galen ſays, that the mountebanks in his days uſed to ſtop theſe perforations of the teeth with a kind of paſte, after which they would expoſe themſelves to be bitten without danger.

THE reader will perhaps think he has been long enough detained in viewing the animals of Barbary; we ſhall therefore change the ſcene, and proceed, according to our method, to ſurvey ſome of the moſt remarkable antiquities to be met with in that part of Africa.

ANTIQUITIES.

A GREAT number of curioſities of this kind are ſcattered up and down thoſe countries which were once poſſeſſed by the ancient Romans, as may be ſeen in Dr. Shaw's geographical obſervations on the kingdoms of Algiers and Tunis. Spaitha, the ancient Sufetula, ſays the doctor, is one of the moſt remarkable places in Barbary for the extent and magnificence of it's ruins; amongſt

amongſt which, at a furlong's diſtance to the eaſtward, there is a ſumptuous triumphal arch of the Corinthian order. From this arch, all along to the city, there is a pavement of large black ſtones, with a parapet-wall on each ſide, probably intended to make the entry of the triumpher more commodious. At a little diſtance from the end of this pavement ſtands a beautiful portico, built in the ſame manner as the triumphal arch, which leads into a ſpacious court, where we ſee the ruins of three contiguous temples, whoſe roofs, porticoes, and fore fronts are broken down, but all the other walls, with their proper pediments and entablatures, remain perfect and intire. In each of them there is a niche, which fronts the portico; and behind that in the middle temple is a ſmall chamber, which perhaps ſerved for a veſtry. Our author has given us a fine draught of theſe venerable ruins.

AT a place called Jemme, in the kingdom of Tunis, there are ſeveral antiquities; as altars with defaced inſcriptions, a variety of columns, a great many trunks and arms of marble ſtatues, one of which is of the coloſſal kind in armour, another a naked Venus like the Medicean, both without heads, but apparently the workmanſhip of good maſters. What this place is moſt remarkably diſtinguiſhed by, are the remains of a ſpacious amphitheatre, conſiſting originally of ſixty-four arches and four orders of columns. The upper order, which Dr. Shaw ſuppoſes might be no more than an Attic, hath ſuffered by the Arabs; and four arches have been blown up from top to bottom by a bey of Tunis, in a revolt of the Arabs, who made uſe of it as a fortreſs; otherwiſe, as to the outſide at leaſt, nothing could be more intire and beautiful. The platform of the ſeats and the galleries are ſtill remaining; and, by comparing

this with other ancient ſtructures, it ſeems to have been built about the time of the Antonines, agreeing exactly in proportion and workmanſhip with the buildings of that age.

BESIDES ſome ancient ciſterns and common ſewers, there are ſcarce any tokens left of the magnificence of Carthage, the rival of Rome. We meet with no triumphal arch, ſays our author, or ſumptuous piece of architecture; no granite pillars, or curious entablatures; but the broken walls and ſtructures now remaining are either built in the Gothic manner, or according to that of the later inhabitants. Adjoining to the large public ciſterns, indeed, which were near the weſtern wall of the city, we ſee the ruins of an ancient and celebrated aqueduct, which may be traced to the diſtance of at leaſt fifty miles. It has been a work of extraordinary labour and expence; and that part of it which runs along the peninſula, whereon Carthage was built, was beautifully faced with hewn ſtone. At Arriana, a little village two leagues to the northward of Tunis, ſeveral arches of this aqueduct are intire, which Dr. Shaw found to be ſeventy feet high, and the pillars that ſupported them ſixteen feet ſquare. The channel that conveyed the water lies above theſe arches, being vaulted over, and plaiſtered with a ſtrong cement. A perſon of an ordinary ſize may walk upright in it; and there are holes left at certain diſtances, both for the admiſſion of freſh air, and the conveniency of cleanſing it when neceſſary.

OVER the fountains that ſupplied this aqueduct with water there were temples erected, of which there are ſtill ſome remains. One of them, which by it's ornaments appears to have been of the Corinthian order, ends very beautifully in a dome, wherein

wherein are three niches, probably intended to receive ſtatues of water-nymphs or other deities, ſuppoſed by the ancients to preſide over fountains. The aqueduct however appears to be of much greater antiquity than the temple, having probably been a work of the Carthaginians; it being difficult to conceive how Carthage could well ſubſiſt without ſuch a convenience.

IN the kingdom of Algiers, near a town called Sherſhell, lie the ruins of a large city, which, according to a tradition in that country, was deſtroyed by an earthquake. We may conceive no ſmall opinion, ſays our author, of it's former magnificence, from the fine pillars, capitals, capacious ciſterns, and beautiful moſaic pavements that are ſtill remaining. It was ſupplied with water brought by a large and ſumptuous aqueduct, little inferior to that of Carthage in the height and ſtrength of it's arches; ſeveral fragments whereof, ſcattered amongſt the neighbouring mountains and vallies, continue to be ſo many inconteſtable proofs of the grandeur and beauty of the work. There are two other conduits ſtill ſubſiſting, which furniſh Sherſhell with excellent water from the mountains, and may be conſidered as two ineſtimable legacies of the ancients.

AMONG the ruins of Tlemſan or Tremeſen are found ſeveral ſhafts of pillars, and other fragments of Roman antiquities; and in the walls of an old moſque are a number of altars dedicated to the Dii Manes, but our author ſaw but one legible inſcription. Moſt of the walls of Tlemſan have been moulded in frames, and conſiſt of a mortar made up of ſand, lime, and ſmall pebbles, which, by being well tempered and wrought together, is become equal to ſtone in ſtrength and ſolidity. The ſeveral ſtages and removes of theſe frames

are ſtill diſcernible, ſome of them being a hundred yards long, and a fathom in height and thickneſs.

AT a place now called Kaſbaite, an old Roman city, there are many fragments of ruins and antiquities, and amongſt the reſt there is part of the portico of a ſmall temple, dedicated perhaps to one of the Roman empreſſes, as Dr. Shaw conjectures from a broken inſcription. A little to the ſouthward are ſeveral ſepulchral monuments, moſt of which have been beautifully carved into a variety of figures in baſſo relievo, who are repreſented mourning, offering incenſe, or performing ſome office to the dead; and below the figures lie the inſcriptions.

ALL over a large knot of hills called Aureſs, lying to the ſouthward of Conſtantina, are ſpread a number of ruins, the moſt remarkable of which are thoſe of L'erba or Tezzoute, near three leagues in circumference. Here we find a great variety of antiquities; for, beſides the magnificent remains of ſeveral of the city-gates, Dr. Shaw obſerved the ſeats and upper part of an amphitheatre; the frontiſpiece of a fine Ionic temple dedicated to Eſculapius; a large oblong chamber, with a great gate on each ſide, intended perhaps for a triumphal arch; and a little beautiful mauſoleum, built in form of a dome, ſupported by Corinthian pillars. Theſe and other edifices of the like nature ſufficiently demonſtrate the once flouriſhing ſtate of this city, which appears to be the Lambeſa of the ancients. Our learned author has copied ſeveral Roman inſcriptions found among theſe ruins.

ABOUT Conſtantina, the ancient Cirta, we meet with a great many remains of antiquity, particularly on a neck of land to the ſouth-weſt, which is intilely covered with a ſeries of broken walls, ciſterns,

ciſterns, and other ruins. Beſides theſe, there are ſtill remaining, near the center of the city, a ſet of ciſterns about twenty in number, making an area of fifty yards ſquare, which our author ſuppoſes received the water brought to them by a now ruinous aqueduct, the fragments whereof demonſtrate the public ſpirit of the people of Cirta in erecting a ſtructure that muſt have required ſuch an immenſe quantity of materials.

UPON the edge of a precipice to the northward are the remains of a ſtately edifice, at preſent occupied by the Turkiſh garriſon. Four baſes of pillars, ſeven feet in diameter, with their reſpective pedeſtals, are ſtill in their places, and ſeem to have belonged to the portico. They are of a black ſtone, little inferior to marble, probably hewn out of the range of rocks on which they are founded.

THE ſide poſts of the principal gate of the city are of a reddiſh ſtone, as beautiful as marble, and very neatly moulded and pannelled. An altar of pure white marble makes part of a neighbouring wall, and on that ſide which is in view is carved, in relievo a well-ſhaped ſimpulum, a veſſel uſed by the ancients in their ſacrifices. The gate toward the ſouth-eaſt is in the ſame faſhion and deſign, but much ſmaller.—The bridge (ſays the doctor) was a maſter-piece in it's kind, having had the gallery and columns of the arches adorned with corniſhes and feſtoons, ox-heads, and garlands. The key-ſtones of the arches are alſo charged with Caducei and other figures; and between the two principal arches there is a well-executed bas-relief, repreſenting a lady treading upon two elephants, which have their faces turned towards each other, and twiſt their trunks together. She has a large ſcollop-ſhell over her head, appears dreſſed in a

cloſe-bodied garment like the riding-habit of our times, and with her right hand raiſes up her petticoats, looking ſcornfully upon the city.

As to the city of Algiers itſelf, of whoſe antiquities the reader may perhaps expect an account, our author, whoſe obſervation nothing ſeems to have eſcaped, tells us there are few to be met with in that city, and little that merits the attention of the curious.

THE other parts of Barbary, beſides thoſe which Dr. Shaw had the opportunity of viewing, eſpecially near the ſea-coaſt, are not deſtitute of antiquities, though they are not to be met with in any great abundance. We have therefore little to add on this ſubject from the kingdoms of Fez and Morocco, and ſo much the leſs, as we have not the ſame excellent guide to conduct us through thoſe countries. It may not be improper, however, to mention a curioſity of the ancient kind, a few miles diſtant from Tangier, where there is a vaſt hole like a coal-pit, many fathoms deep, which leads into a great number of ſubterranean apartments, all lined with marble. Theſe, from the many ſtatues, urns, and old Punic inſcriptions that have been found in them, were undoubtedly repoſitories for the dead, like the catacombs in Italy and Egypt; which having been ſufficiently ſpoken of in their proper places, we need not enlarge upon theſe of Barbary.—But having ſaid ſo much of the remains of it's ancient ſtructures, let us now take a view of ſome of it's modern.

BUILDINGS.

WE ſhall begin this article with the imperial palace in the city of Morocco, the metropolis of that empire. This palace reſembles a fortreſs,

fortreſs, being ſurrounded by a ditch and high walls, flanked with towers and other works. The walls have but two gates, both large and ſtately, the one looking towards the country, the other to the city. The royal apartments are covered with leaf-gold, eſpecially about thirty large halls or rooms of ſtate, and the ſumptuous galleries leading from one to the other. The gardens are very beautiful, being adorned with fiſh-ponds, terraces, and every embelliſhment that is grand and delightful in the Mooriſh taſte.—In the midſt of this fortreſs ſtands a magnificent moſque, remarkable for it's largeneſs, it's brazen gates, and other ornaments, but eſpecially for it's high tower, on the top of which were formerly four golden balls, one above another, fixed on a ſtrong bar of iron which ran through them all. The loweſt was biggeſt, the ſecond but half as big, and the other two leſſening in the ſame proportion. The body of the balls was of copper, but plated all over very thick with gold, and all the four together weighed ſeven hundred pounds. They are ſaid to have been ſet up by a daughter of the king of Gago, married to a king of Morocco, who is reported to have ſold all her jewels to defray the expence of this whimſical ornament; which being done by the direction of ſome pretended conjurer, under a proper conſtellation, the ſuperſtitious people imagined it would be very dangerous and unfortunate to remove them; inſomuch that, one of their kings having reſolved to take them down to pay his troops, the people ſtrenuouſly oppoſed it, offering rather to ſell their wives and children to raiſe him money. However, Marmol tells us, that, when he was there, Muley Hamed, more covetous than ſuperſtitious, cauſed the higheſt to be taken down, the gold whereof was ſold to a Jew for twenty-five thouſand

thouſand piſtoles, and the copper, being juſt gilt over anew, was put up again to ſuppreſs the murmuring of the people. The Jew, it ſeems, was found hanged on the tower; and it was given out that this was done by demons who had the care of the balls: And, Muley Hamed loſing both his crown and life ſoon after, his misfortune was ſuppoſed to be owing to that covetous action. Notwithſtanding this, the late Muley Iſhmael ventured to have them taken down, and put into his treaſury.—This, with ſome other moſques chiefly built of marble and leaded on the top, a few colleges and hoſpitals, and a handſome bridge, is all that is left of the ancient ſplendor of this City, which is run to ſuch decay that many of the ſtreets are quite uninhabited.

AMONG the vaſt number of moſques in the city of Fez, which ſome compute to be above five hundred, there are reckoned fifty of the firſt rank, all of them well built and endowed; one of which, according to Gramaye, is half a league in compaſs, and has thirty large gates. The minaret or tower belonging to it is of a prodigious height, and ſupported by fifty ſtately pillars. The body of the building is covered with ſeventeen principal arches or roofs, beſides a vaſt number of inferior ones, all of them together ſuſtained by fifteen hundred large columns of white marble. A vaſt number of lamps, ſome of a prodigious ſize, are kept continually burning in this moſque; and the ciſterns for people to waſh in, before they go to prayer, are ſaid to be four hundred. It ſtands in the heart of the town, and is eſteemed the largeſt and richeſt in all Barbary. Within the incloſure of this moſque there is likewiſe a ſtately college, and the public buildings of the city in general are beautiful and majeſtic.

MEQUINEZ,

MEQUINEZ, the preſent capital of the empire and the reſidence of the imperial court, is ſituated in the kingdom of Fez, and has a palace about four miles in circumference, ſeated in a ſpacious plain. The buildings are of rich mortar, without either brick or ſtone, except for pillars and arches; and the mortar is ſo well wrought that the walls reſemble one intire piece of terrace; they were formed in wooden caſes, with which the mortar was rammed down by the Chriſtian ſlaves, much in the ſame manner as the paviors among us drive down the ſtones: all raiſing together heavy pieces of wood, and keeping time in their ſtrokes. Theſe wooden caſes were built higher as the walls roſe; and, when they were finiſhed, and dry enough to ſtand firmly without them, were removed. The whole building is exceeding maſſy, and the outer wall which ſurrounds the whole, is twenty-five feet in thickneſs. Mr. Windus, who was in the retinue of Charles Stewart, Eſq. ambaſſador to the emperor of Morocco in 1720, obſerves, that he attended his excellency to ſee the palace, when they paſſed through ſome large rooms filled with men and boys, making ſaddles, ſtocks for guns, &c. and, having paſſed through ſeveral large neat buildings, at length entered the moſt inward and beautiful part of the palace, where all the columns, which form a colonade of vaſt length, are of marble, and are ſaid to be ancient Roman pillars brought thither from Sallee: the arches and doors of the apartments are finely ornamented. From thence they were conducted to another neat regular building with piazzas all round. The area was checquer work, and in the middle was a row of marble baſons at certain diſtances, with little channels cut in ſtone, conveying water from one to the other.

other. They afterwards viſited the inſide of an apartment which had been formerly the reſidence of one of the queens, and ſaw the baths and ſome beautiful cobahs belonging to that apartment. Theſe cobahs are lofty and magnificent rooms, each covered with a dome painted with a ſky blue, adorned with ſtars and a golden ſun in the middle, of curious workmanſhip. From thence they proceeded through ſeveral other buildings, chiefly conſiſting of oblong ſquares with piazzas; under which the doors enter into the lodgings, which are generally ground rooms; the doors of each building being all of one ſize and form finely inlaid, and ſome of them gilt. In one of theſe ſquares was a fountain with channels of marble, forming a neat labyrinth.

THE palace of the baſhaw of Tetuan, a city of the kingdom of Fez, is much admired by travellers, and ſeems worthy of a deſcription. The entrance into this magnificent ſtructure is through a cloiſter, which leads to a great ſquare ſurrounded by a piazza, in the middle of which is a marble fountain. The pavement of the area, and of the piazza, is of moſaic work; on each ſide of the ſquare is one large room, and at each angle a ſquare tower of a conſiderable height above the building, in two of which are ſtair-caſes that lead to the grand apartments. In the third is a door that leads to a moſque; and in the fourth another, through which we paſs into the gardens. On each ſide of the galleries above, which run over the piazza, are fine apartments for the baſhaw's wives, each apartment conſiſting of five rooms, viz. one large room covered with a cupola, in the center of four leſſer rooms; and through theſe are doors that lead to the bagnios of the women, and the lodgings of the female ſlaves. Both the doors and cielings of the houſe are very lofty, and over the

the women's apartments are four noble terrace-walks, which over look the town, a deep valley beneath it, and part of the Mediterranean. At the end of each terrace there is a turret with lattices, where the women ſit to work, and can ſee all that paſſes without being ſeen. In the evening the ladies uſually walk in the garden, where ſeveral of the walks are ſhaded with vines turned over in the form of arches, the walls of the garden being ſo high that they cannot be over looked from any part of the town.--To this account of the baſhaw's palace let us add an obſervation of a certain author, that the Moors of quality have ſcarce any pleaſures, but what they take in their women, houſes, gardens, and horſes: Converſation with men is what they do not reliſh; the reaſon of which is ſuppoſed to be, that their law prohibits them wine, without which good humour and ſprightly diſcourſe cannot be long maintained.

We have lately obſerved, that the great moſque at Fez is looked upon as the moſt ſuperb ſtructure of that kind in Barbary; but Dr. Shaw ſays, that one at Kairwan or Kairoan, in the kingdom of Tunis, is accounted the moſt magnificent, as well as the moſt ſacred, of any in that country. The inhabitants told the doctor (for a Chriſtian is not permitted to enter the moſques of the Mahometans) that it is ſupported by at leaſt five hundred granite pillars; and yet, among the great variety of columns, and other ancient materials employed in this large and beautiful ſtructure, he could not be informed of one ſingle inſcription.—However, we thought proper to mention it, as it is undoubtedly a moſt majeſtic edifice.

We apprehend we cannot conclude this article more agreeably, than by extracting from Dr. Shaw,

to

to whom we are already ſo much indebted, an account of the method of building both in Barbary and the Levant, which ſeems to have continued the ſame, from the earlieſt ages, without the leaſt alteration or improvement. For, as there is a near relation between the preſent Mooriſh buildings and thoſe that are occaſionally mentioned in the Holy Scriptures, it is preſumed that an account of the ſtructure and contrivance of the former may contribute to the clearing up ſome difficulties that have ariſen from not rightly comprehending the faſhion of the other.

LARGE doors, ſpacious chambers, marble pavements, cloyſtered courts, with fountains in the middle, are certainly conveniencies, ſays the doctor, very well adapted to the circumſtances of theſe climates, where the ſummer-heats are generally ſo intenſe. Beſides, the jealouſy, which maſters of families commonly entertain, is leſs liable to be alarmed, whilſt all the windows open into private courts, except ſometimes a latticed window or balcony towards the ſtreet, which are only opened during the celebration of ſome public feſtival.—But to come to a more particular deſcription of the Mooriſh and Eaſtern buildings.

IF we quit the ſtreets of their cities, which are uſually narrow, with ſometimes a range of ſhops on each ſide, and enter into any of the principal houſes, we firſt paſs through a porch or gate-way, with benches on each ſide, where the maſter of the family receives viſits and diſpatches buſineſs; few perſons, not even the neareſt relations, having admiſſion farther, except upon extraordinary occaſions. We next advance into the court, which, lying open to the weather, is paved with ſtone or marble, according to the owner's ability, in order

order to carry off the water*. This court is made uſe of to receive large companies, as upon the celebration of a marriage, the circumciſion of a child, or ſuch-like occaſions; and it is then ſtrewed with mats or carpets for their more commodious entertainment. It is likewiſe uſual at theſe times to have the court ſheltered from the heat or inclemency of the weather, by a veil, as the doctor calls it, which, being expanded upon ropes from one ſide of the parapet-wall to the other, may be folded or unfolded at pleaſure †.

THE court is generally ſurrounded with a cloiſter, over which, when the houſe has one or more ſtories, a gallery is erected of the ſame dimenſions, having a baluſtrade, or a piece of carved or latticed work, going round about it. From the cloiſter and gallery doors open into large chambers, of the ſame length with the court, but ſeldom or never communicating with each other. A whole family frequently lives in one of theſe chambers, which makes their cities ſo exceeding populous, that the plague always ſweeps away great numbers.

PEOPLE of better faſhion hang the chambers of their houſes with velvet or damaſk from the middle of the wall downwards, the reſt being adorned with ingenious wreathings and devices in ſtucco and fret-work. In ſuch houſes the cieling is uſually of wainſcot, either curiouſly painted,

* There is ſomething very analogous, as our author obſerves betwixt this open ſpace in the Mooriſh buildings and the impluvium or cava adium in the Roman architecture; both of them being alike expoſed to the weather, and giving light to the houſe.

† To ſome covering of this kind, ſays Dr. Shaw, the pſalmiſt ſeems to allude, in that beautiful expreſſion of ſpreading out the heavens like a curtain.

or

or thrown into panhels with gilded mouldings and ſcrolls of the Koran intermixed. The floors are laid with painted tiles or plaiſter of terrace; and, as they do not uſe chairs, but ſit croſs-legged or lie at length upon theſe floors, they have them conſtantly ſpread with carpets, ſometimes very rich and beautiful. For their farther eaſe a row of damaſk or velvet bolſters is ranged along each ſide of the floor; and at one end of each chamber there is a little gallery, raiſed four or five feet above the floor, with a baluſtrade in the front of it, where their beds are placed.

THE ſtairs are ſometimes in the porch, ſometimes at the entrance into the court; and, when there is one or more ſtories, they are continued through a corner of the gallery to the top of the houſe, which is always flat, and covered with a ſtrong plaiſter of terrace, from whence the rain-water falls into ciſterns below the court. The terrace is ſurrounded by a wall breaſt-high, or elſe with baluſtrades or latticed-work, to prevent people's falling down; for upon theſe terraces they hang their linen to dry, prepare figs and raiſins, enjoy the cool breezes of the evening, converſe with one another, and offer up their devotions. By this means, when one of the eaſtern cities is built upon a level ſpot of ground, a man may paſs from one end of a ſtreet to the other along the tops of the houſes. Such is the manner and contrivance of the Eaſtern houſes in general; from whence Dr. Shaw takes occaſion to explain the caſe of the paralytic ſaid to be let down through the roof, Luke v. 19.) which circumſtance has lately given great offence to ſome perſons. This pretended difficulty the doctor very learnedly removes, by ſhewing there is no neceſſity to ſuppoſe that a breach

breach was made in the tiling, or any thing of that nature; but that the patient was carried to the top of the houſe, and thence, after the veil above-mentioned was drawn away, let down through the opening into the midſt (of the court) before Jeſus.

To moſt of theſe houſes a ſmaller one is annexed, which ſometimes riſes one ſtory higher than the houſe, and at other times conſiſts only of one or two rooms and a terrace; whilſt others are built over the porch, and, except the ground-floor, have all the conveniences of the larger houſe. From theſe there is a door of communication into the gallery of the houſe, kept open or ſhut according to the maſter's diſcretion; beſides another door, which opens immediately from a privy-ſtairs down into the porch or ſtreet, without giving any diſturbance to thoſe in the houſe itſelf. In theſe back-houſes ſtrangers are uſually lodged and entertained; in them the ſons of the family are permitted to keep their concubines; and thither the men are wont to retire from the hurry and noiſe of their families, to be more at leiſure for meditation or diverſions.

WITH reſpect to the moſques of theſe countries, the doctor tells us they are built exactly in the faſhion of our churches, but, inſtead of uſing ſeats and benches as we do, they only ſpread the floor with mats, upon which they perform their devotions. Near the middle of a moſque, particularly the principal one of each, city, there is a large pulpit baluſtraded around with an aſcent to it of about half a dozen ſteps. Upon theſe, for our author was informed that no perſon is permitted to enter the pulpit, one of their prieſts places himſelf every Friday, which they call the day of the congregation,

gation, and either explains ſome part of the Koran, or exhorts the people to piety or good works. There is a niche in that part of the moſque which ſtands towards Mecca, whither the people direct themſelves during the whole courſe of their devotions; and this niche, as a judicious writer conjectures, repreſents the preſence and at the ſame time the inviſibility of the Deity. The moſques have minarets or towers, as we have often mentioned, which a cryer aſcends at the appointed times, diſplays a ſmall flag, and advertiſes the people with a loud voice of the hour of prayer.

OUR author makes one obſervation farther with regard to the buildings above deſcribed, viz. that both the plaiſter and cement which are made uſe of, particularly where extraordinary ſtrength is required, are, according to trial and appearance, of the ſame conſiſtence and compoſition with thoſe of the ancients. Thoſe ciſterns, adds he, which were built by ſultan Ben Eglib, in ſeveral parts of the kingdom of Tunis, are of equal ſolidity with the famous ones at Carthage; continuing to this day, unleſs where they have been broken deſignedly, as firm and compact as if they were but juſt finiſhed. The compoſition, ſays the doctor, is this: They take two parts of wood-aſhes, three of lime, and one of fine ſand; which, after being well ſifted and mixed together, they beat with wooden mallets for three days and nights inceſſantly, ſprinkling them alternately with a little oil and water, till they become of a due conſiſtence. This mixture is chiefly uſed in their arches, ciſterns, and terraces; but they uſe tow and lime beat together with oil only, without any water, to join the pipes of their aqueducts. Both theſe compoſitions ſoon grow hard as ſtone, and ſuffer no water to pervade them.

The

The Natives of BARBARY.

THE extenſive country of Barbary is chiefly inhabited by three different ſorts of people; the Moors, who are the original inhabitants; the Arabs, who long ago over-ran the country; and the Turks, who have made themſelves maſters of ſome of the beſt provinces, and rendered the kingdoms of Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers, tributary to them. There are alſo ſettled here a variety of foreign nations, as Chriſtians, Jews, and others, with an innumerable multitude of renegadoes, who have renounced their faith. The greateſt part of the Moors are ſaid to be involved in ignorance and ſuperſtition, and to be treacherous, fraudulent, and deceitful. Indeed the cruel oppreſſions they ſuffer under their tyrannical governments have greatly contributed to their degeneracy; they being cruſhed, on the one hand, by a heavy load of taxes, and treated with the utmoſt cruelty by their governors; while, on the other, they are expoſed to the inroads of the Arabs, who ſtrip them of the ſmall pittance they are able to lay up; whence they dare not provide more than is barely ſufficient to ſerve them the year round, leſt their plenty ſhould induce thoſe robbers to viſit them the oftener, or their landlords to raiſe their rents. Hence, if from an unexpected good crop, they obtain more corn than they want, they take the utmoſt pains to conceal it, by burying it under ground, or ſtowing it in caverns; whence they are in danger of being baſtinadoed and tortured, or both, to oblige them to diſcover it; and to avoid all this they are contented to live in the moſt pinching poverty. Few ſituations appear more adapted to depreſs the human mind, and render

mankind

mankind compleatly miſerable. Yet it is here far from producing this effect; for, from their unparalleled patience, peace and contentment reign in every family; and it is even ſaid, that their oppreſſion and miſery have not yet obliged them to introduce into their language any expreſſions of diſcontent, or repining at their unhappy condition; much leſs of curſes and imprecations againſt the authors of their diſtreſs. On ſeeing a circle of them ſitting at the doors of their poor cottages almoſt naked, ſome either ſmoking or telling merry tales; others ſinging or dancing, and when weary, lying ſupinely on the ground; one would conclude them to be a happy, though a lazy people. Beſides, they ſeldom quarrel or fight among themſelves; and, when they do, they uſe no other weapons but their fiſts.

THOSE we have here deſcribed live chiefly in the country, where they are employed in agriculture and the breeding of cattle; but thoſe who live in the ſea-port towns along the coaſt, follow a variety of trades and manufactures, and even carry on ſome commerce by ſea and land; but, though theſe are leſs poor, they are equally oppreſſed with taxes, and, if poſſible, more cruelly treated by their lordly maſters; for the leaſt mark of diſreſpect to the meaneſt ſoldier is ſufficient to procure them, if poor, the chaſtiſement of the baſtinado, or a heavy fine, if rich.

WITH reſpect to the Turks, theſe are by far the feweſt in number, and alſo the worſt and moſt contemptible: they being a wretched crew of indigent, ragged, thievish, and idle fellows, inliſted in and about Conſtantinople, and ſent into Barbary once in three years, to recruit the ſoldiery. Theſe wretches, being furniſhed with a gun, a ſword, and other arms, are incorporated into ſome regiment, and inſtantly obtain a vote and ſhare in

the

the government; and from thence are raiſed from one poſt to another, till they obtain thoſe of admiral, vizier, and even bey; in all which, they treat with inſupportable inſolence their Mooriſh vaſſals; the wealthieſt of whom tremble at the ſight of a Turkiſh common ſoldier.

THIS will be ſufficient to give ſome idea of the inhabitants of Barbary in general, particularly of the Moors in thoſe countries, where they are in ſubjection to the Turks; but it will be proper now to give ſome account of the Moors of Morocco, where they may be conſidered as maſters, they not being ſubject to any foreign power.

THE Moors of this empire are chiefly deſcended from thoſe who were driven out of Spain; and, though, in general, poor and oppreſſed, are very numerous, eſpecially on the ſea-coaſt; but have no trading veſſels, nor carry on any immediate commerce with foreign nations. The men are of a ſwarthy complexion, intermixed with a race of well-looking people, ſomewhat fairer than the reſt.

THEY wear ſhort ſhirts with very broad ſleeves, that ſometimes hang down; but are more frequently tucked up to keep them cool. They have linen drawers tied about their waiſt next the ſkin; and, over their ſhirt, wear a kind of waiſtcoat made to fit cloſe to the body, and faſtened with ſmall buttons and loops, ſet cloſe together, and often embroidered with gold or ſilver thread. Round the waiſt, they tie a ſcarf of ſilk or ſtuff, in which they ſtick large knives, with the handles either of ſome valuable metal, or ivory inlaid, and their ſheaths are tipped with ſilver. Their outer garment is either a piece of fine white woollen ſtuff, five or ſix yards in length, and about one and a half broad, which they wrap round them above and below

their arms: or a kind of ſhort cloak made of cloth or woollen napped ſtuff, with the bottom and ſides edged with a deep fringe; and at the neck behind hangs a peaked hood, with a taſſel at the end, with which they can cover their heads, to keep off the weather. They have always their heads ſhaved, and wear a little red cap, which they make into a turban by rolling muſlin about it; but, when they go into the country, they wear a cane hat to keep off the ſun. They all go bare-legged, but wear ſlippers of red or yellow leather, without heels. The Moors of Morocco in general dreſs after this manner, with no other difference than in the richneſs and fineneſs of the ſtuffs, only the upper garment worn by the poor, is a coarſe, thick woollen cloth, with holes at the top, inſtead of ſleeves, to put their arms through, this reaches to their knees, and hangs looſe about their bodies.

THE women, when they go abroad, dreſs nearly like the men, their upper garment being the cloak juſt mentioned, with the hood of which they cover their heads, bringing it down over their foreheads cloſe to their eyes; and underneath tie a piece of white cloth to hide the lower part of the face. It covers all but their legs, which, when they are at home, or pay a viſit from the tops of their houſes, are generally naked; only ſome ladies of ſuperior rank, have their drawers ſo long, that they reach to their feet, and hang in great looſe folds about their legs. They wear the ſame kind of ſlippers as the men; within doors they have only a ſingle binder about their foreheads; and their hair hangs behind in two large plaits at full length. They alſo wear at home a veſt, open from the boſom to the waiſt, to ſhew their embroidered ſhifts. They have a ſhort petticoat over their drawers, large ear-rings

ear-rings in their ears, with bracelets on their arms and legs.

THE Moors of Morocco are generally luſty, ſtrong-limbed, active, laborious, and endure with ſurprizing reſolution, the heat of ſummer, and the cold rains of winter. Thus a meſſenger will go from Tetuan to Mequinez, which is a hundred and fifty miles, for a Barbary ducat, worth three ſhillings and ſix-pence; and when caught in a ſtorm of rain, will only look out for a buſh, or a high ſtone, and ſitting down on his hams, with his back towards it, remain the whole night in that poſture, or if the weather be fair, will wrap himſelf up in his cloaths, and paſs the night ſleeping on the graſs. It is ſaid that ſome footmen will go a hundred and eighty miles in three days, they ſwim the rivers even in the depth of winter, if not deterred by the rapidity of the current; and when they take a journey that will laſt ſeven or eight days, carry only a little meal and a few raiſins or figs in a ſmall goats ſkin. They have no poſts for carrying letters, which are ſent by theſe footmen, who are almoſt as expeditious as horſes: nor have they any kind of wheel carriage; for they remove their light goods from place to place, on horſes; but make uſe of camels when they convey large quantities of corn, hides, or the like, a conſiderable diſtance.

WHEN the inhabitants of Morocco are in their houſes, they are always ſitting or lying on mats; and if they ever go out on foot, it is never farther than to make a viſit, unleſs their buſineſs requires it; but thoſe who have leiſure, daily ſpend five or ſix hours before their doors, ſitting on their hams, for they think nothing can be more ridiculous than for any one to walk up and down a room "Why, ſay they, ſhould a man remove from one

end of a room to the other, without the leaſt reaſon for it? Can any thing be more abſurd, than for him to go to the other end merely to come back again?" It is here eſteemed ſo ſhameful for a man to make water in a ſtanding poſture, that thoſe who are found guilty of it, are excluded from being evidence in any trial. This is probably to prevent any drop of their urine falling upon their cloaths, which they eſteem a legal defilement; and therefore, when they make this evacuation, they carefully ſquat down like the females.

In no part of the earth is there a more deſpotic government than that of Morocco; their religion, laws, cuſtoms, and prejudices, all conſpiring to render the monarch abſolute, and to confirm the ſubjects in the moſt abject ſlavery. The king or emperor, who has the title of ſharif, has not only an uncontroulable power over the lives and fortunes of his ſubjects, but even over their conſciences; for, as the ſucceſſor of Mahomet, he is the principal interpreter of the Koran. His laws are therefore received with an implicit and religious ſubmiſſion. His ſubjects are even bred up with the notion, that thoſe who die in the execution of his commands, are immediately admitted into paradiſe; and thoſe who have the honour to die by his hand, to a ſtill greater degree of happineſs there. The tyranny of the emperors of Morocco is chiefly exerciſed on the Moors and ſlaves; for the Arabs who pay an involuntary tribute, are not to be treated with ſuch rigour. The zeal and attachment of the negroes, who enjoy the principal power at court, intitle them to better treatment, and the monarch, who commits his perſon, treaſure, and concubines to their care, encourages them, by his own example, to tyrannize over and oppreſs the natives.

THE Moors here, like the other Turks, pay the utmoſt regard to the name of God, and expreſs great abhorrence of the impious cuſtom, ſo common among many who call themſelves Chriſtians, of ſwearing upon the moſt trivial occaſions, which the greateſt reſentment cannot provoke them to; much leſs to uſe blaſphemous and indecent expreſſions, in ſpeaking of the Supreme Being; nor are they ever guilty of duelling or murder; they never kill but in war; and it is with the utmoſt reluctance that they ever engage in battle with thoſe of their own religion.

LEAVING the Moors of Morocco, we ſhall now give a conciſe account of thoſe of Algiers, which is inhabited by many different people, but the moſt numerous are the Moors and Arabs. The Moors, thus called from Mauritania, their ancient country, are of two ſorts; thoſe who inhabit the cities and towns, carry on ſome commerce either by land or ſea, and alſo engage in trades and manufactures. The other ſort are of the wandering kind, and are divided into a prodigious number of tribes, diſtinguiſhed either by the names of their chiefs, or the places of their abode, or both; each forming a kind of itinerant village, or adowar, as they term it, and every family living in a particular tent, or portable hut. They live ſolely on the produce of ſuch lands as they farm from the other Moors, and pay their rent in kind, either in corn, fruit, herbs, honey, or wax; ſelling the remainder to the inhabitants of the neighbouring towns. They are ſkilful in the choice of the moſt advantageous ſoil, and take great care to avoid the neighbourhood of the Turkiſh troops. Each adowar pays the Turkiſh dey a tax in proportion to the number of it's families, their chief being anſwerable to him; and the whole community for each individual.

dual. These wandering Moors are generally ſtrong, warlike, and ſkilful horſemen, valuing themſelves on not being confined to towns, like the other Moors of Algiers, whom they regard as ſlaves always at the mercy of the Turks; ſo that if they receive any inſult or ill uſage from the Turkiſh aga, they inſtantly return it in a hoſtile manner, till the town Moors, who are unable to ſubſiſt without being ſupplied with proviſions from them, have mediated a peace between them. To keep up this martial ſpirit, the chief perſons of every adowar meet every evening in a circle round their chief, to diſcuſs public affairs, after which they perform their uſual exerciſes on horſeback, in which theſe farmers are ſo dexterous, that they can take up any thing from the ground with their lance, in full ſpeed. Their uſual weapons are a broad cutlaſs, which hangs juſt below the left elbow, and a ſhort lance, which they carry in their hand. Theſe wandering Moors are ſo addicted to robbery, that it is dangerous travelling at a diſtance from the towns, without a guard or at leaſt one of their marabuts or prieſts; for as they conſider themſelves as the original proprietors of the country, and as diſpoſſeſſed by the reſt of the inhabitants, they think they have a right to make repriſals.

THE Arabs who are ſcattered through all the provinces, not only of the Algerine dominions, but through the other parts of Barbary, are deſcended from the Mahometan Arabians, who once over-ran this part of Africa; from which being driven by the Turks, they fled to the mountainous parts to ſave themſelves, their cattle and effects; where they have ever ſince enjoyed their liberty; and by their labour and induſtry, have improved theſe barren and deſert lands into pleaſant and fertile

fertile territories. They are divided into a multitude of little governments under their reſpective chiefs; and value themſelves highly on their having preſerved their blood untainted by a mixture with other nations; expreſſing the utmoſt contempt for thoſe, who preferring their ancient habitations, in cities and towns, ſubmitted to a foreign yoke, whom they therefore, in deriſion, call citizens and courtiers.

In this general view of the inhabitants of Barbary, it will doubtleſs be expected that we ſhould not leave Algiers, without taking ſome notice of it's government and treatment of the Chriſtian ſlaves.

The dey of Algiers pays no other revenue to the grand ſeignior, than a certain number of handſome youths, and ſome preſents annually ſent to the Porte. He is choſen out of the army, in which the moſt inferior perſon has an equal right to that dignity with the higheſt; for every bold and aſpiring ſoldier, though but juſt taken from the plough, may be conſidered as heir apparent to the throne. Indeed the dey of Algiers is never aſhamed of the meanneſs of his extraction; thus Mahomet baſha, who was dey of Algiers, when Dr. Shaw was there, entering into a diſpute with the deputy conſul of a neighbouring nation ſaid, "My mo-"ther cried ſheep's trotters, and my father neats "tongues, but they would have been aſhamed to "have expoſed to ſale ſo worthleſs a tongue as "thine." He who aſpires to this high rank, ſeldom waits till ſickneſs or age has removed the preſent poſſeſſor; it is ſufficient if he be able to protect himſelf with the ſame ſcymetar which he ſheathes in the bowels of his predeceſſor; for ſcarce one in ten of them dies in his bed. Even the few, who have made a more peaceful exit, cannot be

said to have owed it to the high regard the army had for them, but rather to their foresight and good fortune, in nipping new insurrections in the bud. Neither their tyranny, mal-administration, or avarice, serve to hasten their ruin, nor can the contrary virtues prevent it. The want of success in the wisest and best conducted enterprise is sufficient to cause an insurrection, and cost the most sagacious dey or officer his life; nay, they are often slain from no other motive than a desire of change, raised by some bold aspirer to the supreme power. The deys, though they generally act in the most arbitrary manner, are frequently obliged to assemble and consult the divan on important affairs, in order to screen themselves from popular discontent; though, the chief members being for the most part his creatures, he may be said to act with a despotic authority, there being no appeal from this supreme tribunal. As the lowest soldier has a right to vote in the election of a dey, as well as the highest; and as there are usually several candidates for that dignity, the election is seldom carried on without some tumult, if not bloodshed; but the choice is no sooner fixed, than he who is elected, is saluted by the words "ALLA-BARIK," or "God prosper you;" and he is immediately invested with the caftan or insignia of sovereignty; while the cadi, or chief judge, addresses him with a congratulatory speech, generally closed with an exhortation, that, as it has pleased the Almighty to raise him to the supreme dignity of the kingdom, it is his duty to govern it with justice and equity; to preserve the rights and liberties of his new subjects, and carefully to promote their safety and welfare.

THE Algerines are more formidable at sea than any other power along the coast of Barbary; and, though

though the commanders of their ships are not allowed to have any concern in affairs of state, or in the elections of the dey, yet they are held in great esteem. However, their navy seldom exceeds twenty ships; only one of which belongs to the government, and is assigned to the admiral, who has particular store-houses: all the rest belong to private persons, and have likewise their store-houses well provided, the captains never failing to strip their prizes of all the conveniencies they find in them. It is not at all surprising, that a people, who consider all the rest of the world as their tributaries or slaves, should be so addicted to piracy, and treat their captives with the utmost arrogance and inhumanity. The captains of these ships have usually a share in those they command, if they are not the sole owners; and accordingly may cruize when they please; but are obliged, when required, to attend the service of the state, in transporting men or provisions, at their own expence. They have also some experienced officer, appointed by the dey, without whose consent they can neither give chace, return, nor punish their sailors. On their re-entering the port, this officer makes his report how the captain has behaved; and, if he is found guilty of any misdemeanor, is sure of being chastised. The captain must also give an account of his success to the government, which claims an eighth part of all the prizes, slaves, and cargo, the rest being divided among the proprietors and ship's company, in such proportions as are agreed upon between them.

THE Christians are no sooner made prisoners, than the Corsairs inquire into their country, condition, and quality, which is often done by bastinadoing them, to extort a true confession; after which having stripped them almost naked, they

are brought to the palace of the dey, to which the European conſuls repair, in order to examine whether any of them belong to their reſpective nation; and, if any of them were only paſſengers, to reclaim them; but, if it be proved that they have ſerved for pay, any nation at war with Algiers, they cannot be releaſed without paying their full ranſom. Of theſe the dey has the choice of every eighth man, and therefore chuſes thoſe who have ſome uſeful trades or profeſſions; as ſurgeon's mates, carpenters, &c. becauſe they ſell for a higher price; and, if of quality, for a ſtill higher. The reſt, who are left to the owners and captors, are led to the beſiſtan, or ſlave-market, where a price is ſet upon them, according to their ability, profeſſion, age, and ſtrength. From thence they are led to the court before the dey's palace, where they are ſold by auction; and whatever is bid above the price ſet upon them, belongs to the government. Theſe unhappy men have then an iron ring put round one of their ancles, and a long or ſhort chain faſtened to it, according as they imagine them more or leſs inclined to attempt their eſcape: but if any of them can procure a little money, they are allowed to keep wine cellars; but muſt pay a certain tribute to the dey, and by this means many of them grow rich enough, in time, to purchaſe their liberty, notwithſtanding their being alſo obliged to contribute towards the maintenance of their poor ſick brethren, and of the Chriſtian chapels allowed for their uſe. With reſpect to thoſe who can put themſelves in no way of living, they are uſed with great ſeverity; they both fare and work hard all day, and at night are locked up in public priſons, where they lie on the bare ground, without any other covering than the ſky, and are ſometimes almoſt ſtifled in mud and water.

water. In the cities and towns, they are put to the loweſt and hardeſt kind of labour; while in the country they are ſometimes made to draw the plough inſtead of horſes; and in all other reſpects are treated with ſuch inhumanity, as would there be ſeverely puniſhed, if exerciſed on brutes.

WITH reſpect to the diſtribution of juſtice, the cadi is the judge; but all affairs of moment are laid before the dey; or in his abſence, before a principal officer of the regency, who ſits in the gate of the palace for that purpoſe. Here are no attorneys or counſellors to retard the adminiſtration of juſtice. When the women have any ſuit, they come veiled, crying aloud, Juſtice in God's name: and theſe are generally accompanied with a crowd of their own ſex, to back the petition with their joint outcries. Juſtice is, however, adminiſtered in the moſt venal manner, in the puniſhment of offenders, particularly when they are Turkiſh ſoldiers, who behave with the utmoſt inſolence, and commit acts of violence with impunity; for they ſeldom ſuffer for any crime except that of rebellion, in which caſe they are uſually ſtrangled with a bow-ſtring. However, for ſmaller offences, they are ſometimes either baſtinadoed, fined, or their pay ſtopped, and if officers, reduced to the rank of common ſoldiers.

A JEW or Chriſtian guilty of murder, or any other capital crime, is burnt alive, without the gates of the city; but for the ſame crimes the Moors and Arabs are either impaled, hung up by the neck over the battlements of the city, or thrown upon hooks fixed in the walls below, where they ſometimes hang thirty or forty hours in the moſt dreadful agonies before they expire.

CLIPPING or debaſing the coin is puniſhed with cutting off the hands. Moors, found guilty of

robbery or burglary, have their right hand cut off; and, it being hung about their necks, they are made to ride through the city on an ass, with their faces towards the tail. The Jews and Christians, for speaking against Mahomet, must either turn Mahometans, or be impaled. The ancient inhuman custom of sawing in sunder, is still retained: this is done by laying the condemned person between two boards of the same length and breadth, and beginning to saw at the head. Small offences are punished with the bastinado.

We shall now lead the reader to a view of the Tunisians, who are more polite and civilized, and intirely free from that haughtiness, insolence, and cruelty, for which the rest of the people in Barbary are justly censured. They are more kind to their slaves, except the knights of Malta; and are in other respects very courteous to strangers; and indeed this nation has for many years been more intent upon trade, and the improvement of manufactures, than upon plundering and cruizing.

The greatest part of the Moorish women of Tunis would be esteemed beauties, even in England; and their children have the finest complexions of any nation whatsoever; but the boys are so exposed to the sun, that they soon attain the swarthiness of the Arabs; but, as the girls keep more at home, they preserve their beauty till they are thirty, when they are generally past childbearing. One of these girls is sometimes a mother at eleven, and a grand-mother at two or three and twenty; and, as they generally live as long as the Europeans, they sometimes see their children of many generations.

The merchants, officers, doctors, and scholars here, appear neatly dressed when they go abroad; but behave with such gravity and good manners, that,

that, though the ſtreets are crowded with people, one may go from one end of the city of Tunis, without fear of being inſulted by the Turks, as one is ſure to be at Algiers. The taverns kept by the ſlaves are better regulated, and thoſe ſlaves are allowed to chaſtiſe even a Turk, if he drinks too much, or behaves inſolently; and even to pull off and keep his turban, till he has paid his reckoning. They ſell none but white wine, which the country produces in great plenty, and is very cheap and good. It is cuſtomary in the taverns at Tunis, when a perſon calls for a quart of wine, to ſet before him three or four diſhes of meat or fiſh, with ſallad and other ſauce; and, when he goes away, he pays only for the wine at a common price. Some of the graver people, who have no conſtant employment, ſpend the day, either in converſing with one another in the barbers ſhops, in the bazar, or at the coffee-houſe; but many of the Turkiſh and Mooriſh youths attend their concubines, with wine and muſic, into the fields, or make merry at one of the public taverns.

As to the Arabs of Tunis, their lives are one continued round of idleneſs or diverſion; for, when they are not called abroad by any paſtime, they ſpend the day in loitering at home, ſmoking their pipes, and repoſing themſelves under ſome neighbouring ſhade: yet the Arab places his higheſt ſatisfaction in his horſe, and is ſeldom in high ſpirits, but when hunting or riding at full ſpeed. Hawking is another of their principal diverſions: and thoſe who take delight in fowling, inſtead of ſpringing the game with dogs, ſhade themſelves with a piece of canvas ſtretched upon two reeds, and painted with the figure of a leopard. The fowler thus concealed walks through the breaks and avenues, looking through ſome holes a little below the

the top of the ſkreen to obſerve what paſſes before him. On the approach of the canvas, the partridges and ſome other birds are obſerved to covey together, though they were before at ſome diſtance from each other; and the woodcock, quail, and ſome other birds that uſually feed in flocks, will, on ſeeing it, ſtand ſtill, with a look of aſtoniſhment. By this means the ſportſman has an opportunity of coming near them, when reſting the ſkreen upon the ground, and directing the muzzle of his piece through one of the holes, he ſhoots at a whole covey at once.

THE Bedoweens, a name given to the Arabs who live in tents, ſtill retain many of the cuſtoms we read of in ſacred and profane hiſtory; for, excepting only their religion, they are the ſame people they were ſeveral thouſand years ago. Upon meeting each other, they ſtill uſe the primitive ſalutation, "Peace be with thee." The inferiors ſhew their reſpect to their ſuperiors by kiſſing their feet, knees, or the borders of their garments. In ſaluting each other, they clap their right hand on their breaſt; and at their great ſolemnities, the wife compliments her huſband by kiſſing his hand. Perſons of the higheſt character, like the ancient patriarchs, and the heroes of antiquity, perform what we term menial offices. The greateſt prince, when viſited by a ſtranger, is not aſhamed, ſays Dr. Shaw, to fetch a lamb from his flock and kill it, while the princeſs makes haſte to prepare her fire and kettle, and then dreſſes it. The cuſtom of walking either bare-foot, or with ſandals, renders the compliment of waſhing the ſtranger's feet, ſtill neceſſary: this is done by the maſter of the family, who firſt preſents himſelf, and is always the moſt officious in this act of kindneſs. When his entertainment is ready, he would think it a

ſhame

ſhame to ſit down with his gueſts, inſtead of which he ſtands all the time, and waits upon them: yet notwithſtanding this reſpect, there have been inſtances, in which thoſe have been the next day overtaken and robb d, by the very perſons who entertained them with ſuch hoſpitality the night before.

WHILE the lazy huſbands take their repoſe under ſome neighbouring ſhade, and the young men and maidens attend the flocks, the wives are all day employed at grinding at the mill, dreſſing proviſions, or working at the looms; and to conclude the day, they ſtill, as in ancient times, take a pitcher or goats-ſkin, and tying their ſucking children to their backs, trudge two or three miles to fetch water. Yet notwithſtanding all this buſineſs, they will not lay aſide any of their ornaments, neither their noſe jewels, their bracelets for their arms and legs, or their ear-rings; all of which are very cumberſome; nor will they omit tinging their eyes with lead-ore; ſo prevalent is cuſtom, and ſo fond are even the ladies in Barbary of appearing in the faſhion.

ARTS, MANUFACTURES, &c.

AS to the liberal arts and ſciences, they have been for many ages, and ſtill continue to be, (ſays Dr. Shaw) in a low condition amongſt the Mahometans; and no wonder this is the caſe more eſpecially in Barbary, ſince the roving life of the Arabs, and the perpetual grievances the Moors meet with from the Turks, will not permit either of them to enjoy that liberty, quiet, and ſecurity, which have at all times given birth and encouragement to learning. As for the Turks, they are generally of ſuch turbulent and reſtleſs diſpoſitions,

or

or ſo deeply engaged in trade and the improvement of their fortunes, that they have no taſte at all for learning, being aſtoniſhed, as they often told our author, how the Chriſtians can take delight, or ſpend ſo much time and money in the empty amuſement of ſtudy and ſpeculation.

Morocco leather, the preparation whereof we have heretofore deſcribed, is one of the moſt curious manufactures of Barbary. Carpets are another branch of the trade and manufactures of that country. They are made indeed of coarſer materials, and are not ſo beautifully deſigned as thoſe of Turky; but, being cheaper and ſofter, they are preferred to lie upon by moſt ſorts of people. At Algiers and Tunis they weave velvets, taffaties, and ſeveral kinds of ſilks; and all over theſe kingdoms they make a coarſe ſort of linen, but Suſa is noted for producing the fineſt. Theſe manufactures however, both of ſilks and linens, are ſo inconſiderable, that they ſcarce make enough for their home conſumption, the deficiency being frequently made up from the Levant and Europe.

THE chief manufacture among the Arabs, Dr. Shaw informs us, is the making hykes, (as they call woollen blankets) and webs of goats-hair for their tents. This work is done only by the women, who make no uſe of a ſhuttle, but conduct every thread of the woof with their fingers. One of theſe hykes is uſually ſix yards long, and five or ſix feet broad, ſerving the Arab for a compleat dreſs in the day, and for his bed and covering in the night. They join together the two upper corners with thread or a wooden bodkin, and, theſe being firſt placed over one of their ſhoulders, they afterwards fold the reſt of it round their bodies; but it is a troubleſome kind of garment, being frequently diſconcerted and falling upon the ground,

so that the person who wears it is often obliged to tuck it up and fold it anew.

In most of the towns and villages there are looms for weaving the byke, and also the burnoose, as they call their cloak or upper garment. This garment is of one piece, made narrow about the neck, with a cape to cover the head, and wide below like a cloak. The cape, however, is only occasionally made use of during a shower of rain, or in very cold weather. Some of these garments are fringed round the bottom*.

The girdles of the Arabs are usually of worsted, very artfully woven into a variety of figures, and made to wrap several times about their bodies. One end of them, being doubled and sown along the edges, serves them for a purse; and they make a farther use of them, by fixing in them their knives, poniards, and inkhorns.—The Moors and Turks in general, with some of the richer clans of the Arabs, wear, upon the crown of their heads, a small hemispherical cap of scarlet cloth, which Dr. Shaw takes notice of as another chief branch of their woollen manufacture. The turban, which is a long narrow web of linen, silk, or muslin, is folded round the bottom of these caps, and distinguishes, according to the order and fashion of the folds, the several orders of soldiers not only from the tradesmen and citizens, but from one another.

* Dr. Shaw thinks the burnoose is probably the same with our Saviour's cloak, which (John xix. 23.) was wove without seam from top to bottom; and with the cloaths of the Israelites (Exod. xii. 34.) wherein they folded up their kneading troughs, &c. as the Moors and Arabs do, to this day, things of like burden and incumbrance.

THE greateſt part of the manufactures above-mentioned are conſumed at home; and it may be farther obſerved, that the inhabitants of Barbary ſend few of their commodities to foreign markets. Oil, hides, wax, pulſe, corn, ſays Dr. Shaw are the general produce of the kingdoms of Algiers and Tunis; but the firſt are either in ſuch ſmall quantities, or ſo much wanted at home, that corn may be reckoned the chief or only commodity for exportation. Formerly indeed, ſeven or eight thouſand tons of oil have ſome years been ſhipped off by our merchants from thoſe kingdoms; but there is ſo great a conſumption of oil among the natives themſelves, that the Algerines will ſeldom permit it to be exported into Chriſtendom. Greater quantities are produced near Tunis and Suſa; but then the Mooriſh merchants alone are allowed to buy it, obliging themſelves at the ſame time to diſpoſe of it at Alexandria, Damiata, or ſome other ports of the Ottoman dominions.

IT being now time to leave Barbary, we ſhall conclude this chapter with an obſervation which Dr. Shaw mentions to the honour of the weſtern Moors, namely, that they continue to carry on a trade with ſome barbarous nations bordering on the river Niger, without ſeeing the perſons they trade with, and without having once broke through that original charter of commerce, which from time immemorial has been ſettled between them. The method is this: At a certain time of the year a numerous caravan ſets out on this journey, carrying along with them ſtrings of coral and glaſs beads, bracelets of horn, knives, ſciſſars, and ſuch like trinkets. When they arrive at the place appointed, they find, in the evening, ſeveral heaps of gold-duſt, lying at a ſmall diſtance from each other, againſt which the Moors place ſo many

trinkets

trinkets as they judge will be taken for the value. If the Nigritians, the next morning, approve of the bargain, they take away the trinkets and leave the gold, or elſe make ſome deductions from the heaps; and thus they tranſact their buſineſs without the leaſt inſtance of diſhoneſty or perfidiouſneſs.

CHAP. III.

OF NIGRITIA OR NEGROLAND AND GUINEA.

WE are much in the dark concerning the country of Nigritia, and all the other inland parts of Africa; for moſt of the knowledge we have is gathered from the reports of the natives, who are but poorly qualified for deſcriptions, and know little of the natural hiſtory and curioſities of the countries they inhabit. In that vaſt tract which our geographers have aſſigned to Nigritia or Negroland, which is ſuppoſed to derive it's name from the great river Niger, running through it from eaſt to weſt, there are many kingdoms and nations of different people, who are ſubject to abſolute princes. The country, particularly near the river, is extremely fertile, and abounds with the moſt delicious fruits, but the heat of the ſun, before any breeze ariſes, is intolerable: yet as a refreſhing gale always ſprings up about noon, it renders the country very ſupportable. However, conſtant thunder and rain, with a cloſe ſuffocating heat prevail during four months in the year. The tornadoes ſometimes produce a moſt dreadful and aſtoniſhing ſcene; the moſt horrible darkneſs

darkneſs comes on at mid-day, and the thunder and lightning is more dreadful than can be imagined; for the whole face of nature ſeems ſuddenly changed. Yet, whatever amazement and terror this may impreſs upon the minds of ſtrangers, it is ſeldom attended with fatal conſequences, and the power of cuſtom renders it but little regarded by the natives.

As all Nigritia and Guinea lie within the tropic of Cancer, the air, as has been already intimated, is exceſſive hot, and, the flat country being overflowed a great part of the year by the periodical rains, this contributes to render it very unhealthful; but to theſe may be added ſeveral other cauſes, as the coolneſs of the night, ſuddenly ſucceeding the heat of the day, whereby contrary effects are produced in the body, eſpecially in thoſe who are not accuſtomed to bear more heat than cold, by haſtily throwing off their cloaths, and cooling too faſt. A ſecond cauſe is, that this country, particularly the gold coaſt, abounds with high mountains, and in the vallies between them there ariſes every morning a thick ſtinking ſulphureous damp, or miſt, which ſpreads itſelf in ſuch a manner, that it is almoſt impoſſible for Europeans to eſcape the infection, while they are faſting, their bodies being more ſuſceptible of it than the natives. The great difference between the European air and this, is ſo obſervable, that till lately few came hither that were not ſeized with a raging fever, and the ſhips frequently loſt half their crews by fevers; but, ſince Dr. James's powders have been carried thither, they have happily produced the moſt aſtoniſhing and ſalutary effects, and by this means alone, this voyage, which has been juſtly dreaded, is rendered as ſafe to the Engliſh, as thoſe to any other hot countries whatſoever.

It

It is observable, that the winds on the coast of Guinea are directly contrary to the trade winds, and blow from west to east; except in the rainy season between the vernal and autumnal equinox, when the violent hurricanes just mentioned, attended with thunder and lightning, proceed from the south, from whence the storms blow with great violence; on which account the ships on the coast are in danger of being wrecked on the shore, on which a surf constantly beats in the calmest weather, that renders landing, not only very difficult, but dangerous. However, the air is for the most part pleasant and refreshing; but has something so peculiar in it, that keys will rust in a man's pocket. One of the greatest advantages of these countries, is their enjoying, in a manner, a perpetual spring, ripe fruit and blossoms being commonly seen on the same tree.

FOSSILS.

BOTH Negroland and Guinea have mines of iron, copper, silver, and gold, though we are not certain whether many of them are wrought. Mr. Moore tells us, that the gold which the merchants bring down to the European traders on the river Gambia is of a very good quality, and finer than the sterling gold. They bring it in small bars, thick in the middle, and turned round into rings, from ten to forty shillings value. These merchants are blacks of the Mundingo race, and are called Joncoes. They are very unwilling to say much of the inland countries; and all our author could gather concerning the gold was, that it is not washed out of the sand, but dug out of mines in the mountains, the nearest of them at least twenty days journey from Cower. In the

country where the mines are, they ſay there are houſes built with ſtone and covered with terrace, and that the ſhort cutlaſſes and knives which they bring down with them are made there, the ſteel whereof is excellent.

As to Guinea, it is ſuppoſed to contain more gold than any other part of the world, there being great quantities of it waſhed down from the mountains, and found in the rivers. By violent rains and torrents pieces of rocks are ſometimes removed, and bits of this precious metal picked out of the cleſts and cavities where it lay concealed; but much more is waſhed down in little particles, no bigger than ſand, into the rivers, which is called gold-duſt, as the former is called rock-gold. The European merchants and factors never go up into the country to purchaſe gold, but the trading negroes bring it to the forts and factories, and on board the European ſhips, great part of it coming two or three hundred miles or upwards. It is ſaid the negro merchants mix copper, and other ingredients of leſs value, both with the rock-gold and gold-duſt, in which cheat they are exquiſite proficients. The value of the gold brought from the Guinea coaſt, one year with another, by all the European nations that trade thither, is ſuppoſed to amount to three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, or upwards; of which the Engliſh may import one third, the Dutch another, and the French, Danes, Portugueſe, and Pruſſians the remainder.

In the rainy ſeaſons, after a wet night, the ſeaſhore is covered with people, moſtly women, each having a couple of bowls made of calabaſhes, the largeſt of which they fill with ſuch earth and ſand as the floods have brought down from the mountains; and this they waſh with many waters, often turning

turning the bowl round, till the earth and ſand be all waſhed away, except two or three ſpoonfuls at the bottom, which they carefully put into the other bowl; for the gold, if there be any, ſinks to the bottom by reaſon of it's weight. Thus they continue waſhing the ſand till the ſmall bowl is pretty well filled with the ſediment, which they carry home, and ſearch diligently. Sometimes they find as much gold as is worth a ſhilling, ſometimes ten, and very often none at all.

On the ſouth ſide of the Gambia, not far from the ſea-coaſt, there is a negro nation which F. Labat calls Balantes, in whoſe country the Portugueſe imagined there were mines of gold, becauſe having bought ſome fowls of the Balantes, they found grains of gold in moſt of their gizzards. This induced the Portugueſe to attempt the conqueſt of that country, and accordingly, in July 1695, they landed there without oppoſition; but it being then the rainy ſeaſon, they had ſuch violent ſhowers that all their arms and ammunition were ſpoiled, and the Balantes attacked them ſo briſkly with their haſſagayes and ſabres, that they were intirely routed, and obliged to retire, leaving behind them a great number of their allied negroes, with the beſt part of their baggage, arms, and ammunition.

The ſame father informs us, that in the country of the Saracoles there are ſeveral naked hills of a beautiful marble of different colours, but chiefly red, from whence it would be no difficult matt r to bring it to Europe. He alſo mentions another mountain of red marble mixed with white veins, which are ſo bright and ſhining that they appear like ſilver. This marble is ſo hard, that it is uſed in ſtead of flints by the natives.

The

THE natural ſalt, formed at the bottom of certain pools near the ſea, is a curioſity mentioned by the ſame author. He reckons eight of theſe pools, wherein the ſalt is naturally formed at the bottom of the water, like a ſcaly ſtone; which being broke with long iron crows, the ſalt riſes up to the ſurface, and the natives ſkim it off, and dry it in the air. Whatever quantity they take, it does not appear to diminiſh in the leaſt; but the ſalt is not wholeſome, being corroſive, and is only uſed to cure raw hides.

VEGETABLES.

THE Pholeys, a people who apply themſelves moſt to huſbandry, plant tobacco and cotton near their towns, which they fence in together. Beyond this incloſure are their corn-fields, of which they raiſe the four kinds uſual all over the countries bordering on the Gambia; that is to ſay, Indian corn, or maize, which is alſo the food of the natives of America, where we ſhall ſpeak of it more particularly: Beſides which they have rice, and the larger and leſſer Guinea corn. They have no wheat, barley, rye, oats, or any other European grain; but they have a kind of pulſe between the kidney-bean and the pea, and yams and potatoes. The Indian corn they ſet in holes, three or four together, about four feet diſtant from each other, ſo that it grows like hops. It ſhoots up to the height of eight or ten feet, being a large cane, with the ears growing out of the ſides. The rice, which they eſteem their choiceſt food, they ſet in rills, as we do peaſe; it requires wet grounds, and it's ears are like thoſe of oats. The larger Guinea corn is round, about the ſize of our ſmalleſt peaſe. This they ſow by hand, as we

we do wheat and barley; and it runs up to nine or ten feet high, though a ſmall reed, the grain growing in a large tuft at the top. The leſſer Guinea corn is ſown in the ſame manner, and ſhoots to the ſame height; but the reed is larger, on the top of which the corn grows in a head like a bulruſh. Theſe are all of the bread-kind that are cultivated on the river Gambia; and, indeed, the natives make no bread, except the women who are accuſtomed to Europeans, but uſe the flour of the ſeveral grains to thicken their liquids. The Indian corn they uſe moſtly green, parching it in the ear upon coals, which gives it a taſte like green peaſe. They chiefly boil their rice as the Turks do; and make flour of their corn by pounding it in wooden mortars.

THE palm-tree in Negroland (perhaps a different ſpecies from any we have yet mentioned) Mr. Moore deſcribes to be a fine ſtraight tree, growing to a prodigious height, ſome of them to ſixty, ſeventy, or a hundred feet. From this tree the natives extract a ſort of whitiſh liquor like whey, called palm-wine, by making an inciſion at the top of the trunk, to which they apply a pipe made of leaves, through which the liquor runs into gourd-bottles. This wine, ſays our author, is pleaſant to drink as ſoon as drawn, being exceeding ſweet, but apt to purge very much. In a day or two it ferments, and grows hard and ſtrong, like Rheniſh wine; at which time the natives drink it in abundance, it being then no ways unwholſome.—To ſee how nimbly the negroes climb up theſe trees is very ſurpriſing, having nothing to aſſiſt them but a piece of bark made round like a hoop, with which they incloſe themſelves and the tree, and ſo ſetting their feet againſt the tree, and their backs againſt the hoop, they aſcend

very ſwiftly; but ſometimes they fall down and loſe their lives, either by miſſing their footing, or the breaking of the hoop.

WHAT they call the ciboa-tree ſeems to be another ſpecies of the palm, growing, like that, to a great height, and yielding a wine in the ſame manner, but not quite ſo ſweet as the former. The trunk of this tree, as well as the palm, is very ſappy when young, but very tough when old; and the leaves that grow on the top are of great ſervice in covering of houſes.

THERE is alſo a ſpecies of palm growing in thoſe parts of Africa we are ſpeaking of, which yields an oil called palm-oil, or oil of Senegal, the name of a large river ſuppoſed to be a branch of the Niger or Gambia. This oil, or rather ointment, which is of an orange colour and fragrant ſmell, is obtained from the pulp of the fruit by adding to it a large quantity of boiling water, and ſtirring them in a kettle over the fire till they are intimately mixed. Then taking the kettle off the fire, they let the matter ſtand till it's more ſolid parts ſubſide to the bottom; and, having ſkimmed off the oil that floats on the ſurface, they repeat the operation by pouring on it more boiling water. The oil is of the conſiſtence of butter, and uſed as ſuch by the Africans, who alſo burn it when old. In Europe it is eſteemed a good remedy againſt cold humours, and is ſaid to ſtrengthen the nerves, give eaſe in pains of the gout, remove wearineſs, and relax contracted parts.

MR. STIBBS gives us a deſcription of a tree called pau de ſangue, or blood-wood, from a reddiſh gum which it yields. This tree, according to Mr. Stibbs, grows plentifully all up the river Gambia, and is a hard wood, of a beautiful grain, and poliſhes finely, ſo that it is very proper for

eſcrutores

eſcrutores or inlaying. It does not grow to any great height or bulk, ſo that it is not eaſy to find one that will produce a plank fourteen, fifteen, or ſixteen inches broad. It grows generally in a dry rocky ſoil, on the ſides and tops of hills; and, when the wood is firſt cut, it has an agreeable ſmell. Upon wounding this tree, the juice ſweats out in drops like blood, which joining together, and being dried by the ſun, congeal into lumps. Mr. Moore has had ſome as large as pullets eggs; but he gives no account of the trees growing ſo plentifully near the river as Mr. Stibbs repreſents. They ſeems rather, according to Mr. Moore, to be found in great abundance about four days journey from Fatatenda, one of the company's factories on the Gambia, about five hundred miles from the mouth of the river.

THE principal commodity on the banks of the river Senegal is gum Senegal, which is uſed both in medicine, and in many arts and manufactures, particularly by the ſilk-weavers, dyers, and painters in water-colours. The tree from which it is produced, is deſcribed by Lebat as a ſpecies of acacia, it being ſmall, prickly, full of branches, and covered with very narrow leaves, moderately long, and of a perpetual verdure. According to ſome authors, it bears a white flower compoſed of five leaves, which form a kind of a cup; but other naturaliſts repreſent it, as formed of one leaf, in the manner of a funnel, and the flowers are in cluſters; from the bottom of the flower riſes the piſtil, and the flower is ſucceeded by a pod, three or four inches long, filled with ſmall, round, hard and black grains, which ſerve to propagate the ſpecies. Of this kind of gum-tree, there are three foreſts, all in the deſert north of the river, and nearly at equal diſtances from it. Every year

produces two crops, if it may be thus termed, of gum; the firſt and beſt in December, and the other in March. The firſt tears or exudations are the largeſt, the drieſt, and moſt pure, with every other advantage required in this drug; and the other more ſoft, glutinous, and impure. The December crop is gathered after the rains have ceaſed, and the moiſture of the earth has rendered the ſap more abundant; but that in March is procured by making inciſions in the trees, which have then too little vigour to produce it of themſelves. The natives who feed upon this gum after it is diſſolved in milk, ſell it by a cubic meaſure called a quintal, which holds about two hundred weight; and this they exchange for goods of about two ſhillings value. The white and ſmaller tears of this gum are often ſold for the true gum arabic, and indeed their properties and qualities are much the ſame.

THE banana-tree grows plentifully near the river we have ſo often mentioned, bearing a fruit ſix or ſeven inches long, covered, when ripe, with a yellow and tender ſkin. It's leaves are two yards long, and about twelve inches wide; and the fruit grows upon a ſtalk about ſix yards high, each ſtalk bearing only one ſingle cluſter or bunch, which perhaps conſiſts of forty or fifty bananas. When the bunch is gathered they cut off the ſtalk, otherwiſe it would bear no more fruit. The pulp of the fruit is as ſoft as marmalade, and of a very pleaſant taſte; and it is ſaid to be very nouriſhing, to excite urine, and provoke to venery.—The fruit of the plantain-tree is not much unlike the banana either in taſte or ſhape, only it is ſomewhat longer.

HERE are alſo guavas, which reſemble peaches, only the outſide is much rougher, and there is no ſtone within, but kernels leſs than thoſe of apples.

This

This fruit is reckoned an excellent medicine againſt the flux.—Phyſical nuts, and tabacombas, are likewiſe found about the Gambia, the former of which contain three or four ſmall kernels, whereof one or two are a purging-doſe; but they are apt to vomit as well as purge, though they are frequently uſed by the natives.—The tabacomba is almoſt like a bon-chrêtien pear, with a rind reſembling that of a pomegranate. When it is ripe it opens of itſelf, the pulp appearing of a reddiſh colour, with large ſtones, and very inſipid.

We ſhall next mention Guinea pepper, from whence part of that country, where it grows plentifully, is called the grain coaſt. Abundance of it grows likewiſe in America, where it is much eſteemed; and it is now cultivated pretty commonly in France, eſpecially in Languedoc. The ſhrub that bears it flowers in our gardens in Auguſt, and produces red pods about the latter end of September and October, in which the pepper is incloſed; but the plant periſhes with the firſt froſt, ſo that it is ſown annually. The ſkins boiled, and uſed as a gargle, aſſwage the toothach; and a catalapſm made of the ſeeds mixed with honey, and applied to the throat, is good for a quinſey; otherwiſe it is not much uſed in medicine.

Mr. Finch mentions a tree that is extremely poiſonous. It reſembles a beach, and is called by the natives agon. It's fruit is of an oblong form, like the pod of a bean; and is diſtinguiſhed by it's ſize into three kinds, all of which have the moſt malignant qualities. Within the pod are incloſed four or five ſquare beans, each incircled with a hard rind, within which is a yellow kernel, from whence the poiſon is extracted. Theſe are uſed by the natives in poiſoning their

arrows, and nothing can more effectually anſwer that purpoſe, as the ſmalleſt quantity, entering the body by the ſkin, proves fatal.

ANIMALS.

THE parts of Africa we are now treating of abound with elephants, lions, and other wild beaſts already deſcribed. Mr. Stibbs tells us, that one morning, as he was examining a hill that lies near the Gambia, up which river he was ſent to make diſcoveries, he found near the top a lion's den, and ſoon after heard the lion roaring at no great diſtance, which occaſioned him to make haſte to the bottom of the mountain. The den, he ſays, was cunningly choſen in a ſolitary place, about three quarters up the hill, at the foot of a precipice in the ſide of a rock. It was difficult of acceſs, but large and commodious, yet undoubtedly formed by nature. The track to it, with the footſteps, excrements, and even ſome of it's hair, left him no room to doubt but that it was the reſidence of a lion, which are plentiful up the river. Their roaring, adds our author, we frequently heard in the night, but he could not ſay that ever he had ſeen one in the woods. However, he had once the ſight of two or three hundred elephants in a drove, coming down to the river to drink, which raiſed the duſt like the ſmoke of a glaſs-houſe or brew-houſe fire; and another time he ſaw a great number of thoſe animals ſwim acroſs the river not above a quarter of a mile ahead of his veſſel.

ALONG the gold coaſt are an incredible number of harts, and about twenty different ſorts of deer, ſome as large as ſmall cows, and others no bigger than cats; moſt of them are red with a black liſt upon

upon the back; and ſome of them red, beautifully ſtreaked with white. All of them are eſteemed delicate food, particularly a ſort about two feet long, the fleſh of which is much admired. Among theſe animals is one of a red colour, of extraordinary beauty: theſe have little black horns, and are ſo ſmall, that the legs of ſome of them, according to Mr. Boſeman, are no thicker than the ſmall part of a tobacco-pipe. They ſeem to be the ſame with the beautiful antelopes mentioned by Mr. Smith in his voyage to this country. Theſe pretty creatures, ſays he, ſeemed rather to vaniſh, than to run by us, among the buſhes; yet they are often caught and ſhot by the natives. They are no bigger than rabbits, and the Europeans frequently tip their feet with gold, to make tobacco ſtoppers of them, but they are ſo very tender that it is impoſſible to bring them alive to Europe.

As for the river-horſe, crocodile, and alligator, which are all frequent in the Gambia, we refer the reader to the deſcription we have already given of thoſe animals*: But it ſeems proper to add here, that there is alſo plenty of guanas, a creature reſembling a little alligator. The natives ſay, that, when a man comes near them unawares, they will ſometimes break his legs with their tail; which one would almoſt think impoſſible, ſays Mr. Moore, the whole animal being ſeldom above a yard long. The negroes, and ſome white men, eat the guana as a great dainty; and our author was told it taſtes as well as any rabbit.— Of this creature we may perhaps find occaſion to ſay ſomething more when we come to America.

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* See Vol. IV. p. 237.

IN theſe parts of Africa, as in moſt hot ſandy countries, there are a great many ſnakes and other venomous reptiles. Mr. Moore tells us that the natives are much afraid of the black ſnakes, which he himſelf has ſeen three yards long, and as big as the ſmall of his leg. He was alſo told of ſeveral other venomous ſnakes, particularly ſome with a comb upon their heads, which they poſitively affirm to crow like a cock. This perhaps is what we call the baſiliſk or cockatrice, concerning which many ſtrange things have been reported, that are now generally looked upon as fabulous. He ſhot a green ſnake about two yards long, but in the thickeſt part not above three inches in circumference. This kind of ſnake, he was informed by the natives, is not at all venomous; but they have ſo many that are ſo, that they ſeldom go without a remedy about them, in caſe they ſhould be bit by any of theſe poiſonous animals.

THERE are great numbers and a prodigious variety of ſnakes in that part of Guinea called the gold coaſt, ſome of which are of an amazing ſize. Mr. Boſeman obſerves, that the largeſt of thoſe taken, while he was on this coaſt, was twenty feet long; he tells us, that he believes they are ſtill larger within land, and that there have been frequently found, in their entrails, not only harts, and other beaſts, but alſo men. Moſt of the ſnakes are venomous, but one is ſo to an extraordinary degree. It is ſaid that, though this is ſcarce a yard long, it is two ſpans thick, and variegated with white, black, and yellow.

IN ſome places there are ſaid to be toads as large as a pewter plate; theſe are mortal enemies to the ſnakes, with which they have frequent engagements. There are likewiſe many centipedes, whoſe

whoſe bite occaſions a violent pain for ſeveral hours, but is not mortal. Spiders of a monſtrous ſize are alſo found here, and are ſaid to be venomous.

AT a town about a mile from Brucoe Mr. Moore found a very large ſcorpion, being full twelve inches long. Theſe creatures are reckoned very venomous; and were a perſon to be ſtung by ſo large a one as this, our author believes it would be immediate death. He has known ſeveral people ſtung by ſmall ſcorpions, which wound is ſo extremely painful, that for at leaſt twelve hours the perſon ſtung cannot ſleep; but about that time the pain abates, and ſoon after is quite over. It is remarkable, that notwithſtanding the violence of the pain, the ſwelling is very little.

GUINEA hens and partridges are to be met with in vaſt numbers in theſe countries; and it is worth obſerving, as Mr. Moore ſays, that the latter have ſometimes two large ſpurs on each leg; and this he had reaſon to remark, having his hand one day torn with the ſpurs, as he ſnatched up a bird he had juſt ſhot, fearing leſt it ſhould eſcape.

THERE are likewiſe a variety of large and ſmall birds, ſome of which are extremely beautiful, their plumage being finely variegated with the brighteſt colours; and the heads of ſome of them, crowned with tufts of feathers. Particularly there are two ſorts of crowned birds on the gold coaſt; one is about three feet high, ſhaped like a heron, and feeds on fiſh. It is black and white, and crowned with a bunch of feathers, that reſembles the taſſel of a coach-horſe. The other is about the ſize of a parrot, and is green about the head and neck; the body is of a fine purple, and the wings and tail are ſcarlet, tipped with black.

AMONG the birds of Whidah, is one remarkable for changing it's colour whenever it moults; ſo

that thoſe which are black this year, will be blue or red the next; the following year they will be yellow, and afterwards green; but they never vary from theſe five colours, which are always very bright, and never mixed.

THERE are a ſort of ſcreech-owls, which in the night-time make a very diſmal noiſe, and are taken by the natives for witches. If one of theſe birds happens to come into a town in the night, the people are preſently all alarmed and fire at it as an enemy; and as they never had the good fortune to kill one of them, that Mr. Moore could learn, they ſtill continue to be witches in the opinion of the poor natives.

SEVERAL remarkable inſects are found near the river Gambia, and other parts of Negroland and Guinea. Mr. Moore tells us, that during the time of a very dreadful tornado a ſort of large flies with long wings came on board a ſloop in the river in ſuch prodigious numbers, that flying into the flame of the candles, the table was ſoon covered with thoſe that had burnt their wings; and others, which were not burnt, ſhed their wings as they walked along the table, and then were nothing but ſo many large maggots. The draughts of ſome of theſe African inſects ſhew them to be curioſities in nature.

THE muſquetoes, ſays our author, are the greateſt plague to a perſon of any vermin on the river. They are even worſe than ſome ſmall flies, from their minuteneſs called ſand-flies, which are ſo little as hardly to be diſcerned. Theſe, if any wind be ſtirring, are not able to bite; but the muſquetoes mind neither wind nor any thing elſe, giving a perſon continual diſturbance, eſpecially in the night-time. They may be compared to our

Engliſh

Engliſh gnats, but are much more troubleſome; when they bite, the part itches very much, and if you ſcratch it till it bleeds, you run the riſque of having a ſore; and when it is healed, the place always appears of a blackiſh colour.

THE buggabuggs, as the natives call them, are a pernicious and deſtructive vermin wherever they get an entrance. Their way of travelling is to make a hollow pipe or tube of dirt, much like an arch of a vault, under which they march without being ſeen. They are a ſort of white ants, and are very expeditious at their work, for in twelve hours they will make their tube, and travel eight or nine yards to get to a cheſt, box, or barrel. Wherever they get, they make ſtrange havock, eſpecially in woollen cloaths. In ſhort, nothing comes amiſs to them, for they feed as heartily upon wood as any thing elſe; and what is moſt remarkable (ſays our author) is, that they eat the inſide only of a cheſt or table, ſo that when they have entirely deſtroyed it by eating the very heart and ſubſtance of the wood, it appears to the eye to be ſtill ſound. They cannot bear the ſun, which ſeems to kill them for a time; but after ſun-ſet they are obſerved to recover their ſtrength and vigour. People are obliged to watch theſe creatures very carefully, and to take meaſures to prevent their coming to their cheſts, which is done by putting them on ſtands with the legs of them well daubed with tar; and if the tar be not ſpread over anew at leaſt once a week, it is ten to one but theſe inſects pay them a viſit.

IN the rainy ſeaſon, ſays Mr. Moore, the frogs, of which there are vaſt numbers, and much larger than thoſe in England, make as much noiſe in the night as a pack of hounds, and not unlike it at a

conſiderable diſtance. This muſic, together with that of the ſcreech-owls, and the wild beaſts in the woods and mountains, muſt needs be very diſagreeable.

AMONG the fiſh formed on the gold coaſt, is the ſea-devil, and the horned fiſh; the former is about twenty-five feet long, and proportionably thick; but what is moſt remarkable are the angles which project from it's body, and are of a hard, horny ſubſtance. The head, which is large, is joined immediately to the body, without the ſmalleſt appearance of a neck, and is furniſhed with flat teeth. Nature has beſtowed on this animal four eyes, two of which are near the gills, and are large and round, but the two others on the forehead are of a ſmaller ſize. On each ſide the gullet are three horns, of an equal length and thickneſs; that on the right ſide, which ſtands between the other two, is about three feet in length, and an inch and a half in circumference, at it's inſertion, gradually terminating in a ſharp point; but as it is yielding and flexible, it affords the animal only a feeble protection. The tail, which is long and taper, like a whip, is armed with a ſharp point, which he frequently darts backward, and his back is covered with hard excreſcences, two inches high. The fleſh is tough and ill taſted, though much ſought after by the negroes.

THE horned fiſh, or ſea bull, is about three feet long, excluſive of the tail, and armed with two horns in it's forehead, which are bony, ſtrong, rough, pointed at the extremity, and about ſix inches in length. His eyes, which are large, are fringed with a kind of ſtrong hard hair; and the head has ſome reſemblance to that of a hog; but terminates in a kind of proboſcis, which is the only paſſage, by which it receives it's food, conſiſting of

of ſmall fiſh and ſea weeds. His body is ſquare, of an equal thickneſs at both extremities, it being every-where about five feet in circumference. His ſkin is rough, ſtrong, and filled with pointed knobs, but is not prickly, or covered with ſhells, and is every-where ſpotted with different colours, as white, grey, and violet. On his back riſe two excreſcences, about three inches high, which run from the baſe of the horns, almoſt to the tail: this is compoſed of two parts; the one fleſhy, and covered with a continuation of the ſkin of the body, it being in fact a part of the vertebræ of the back, but more flatted and pliant. The other is a thick fin, of a brown colour, ſtreaked with parallel lines of white, and ſerves both for a kind of rudder, and for it's defence.

THERE is one curioſity which we ſhall take the liberty to mention under this article, though perhaps ſome people may think it not worth notice. Mr. Moore thought it remarkable, and accordingly tells us, that one evening he ſupped upon oyſters which grew upon trees; and this he makes appear to be literally true. On the banks of the river, it ſeems, where the water is ſalt, and near the ſea, grow certain trees called mangroves whoſe leaves being long and heavy, weigh down the boughs into the water. To theſe leaves and branches the young oyſters faſten in great quantities, where they grow till they are very large, and then they cannot be ſeparated from the tree, but people cut off the boughs, on which the oyſters hang ſomewhat reſembling a rope of onions.

BUT of all the productions of theſe parts of Africa, perhaps none more deſerves the attention of the curious than that we are now going to deſcribe. Some of the natives having got a net, Mr. Moore went along with them to fiſh in a lake over-againſt one of the factories, where they caught a great

a great number of fiſh, and amongſt the reſt one ſomething like a gudgeon, but much larger. None of them cared to touch it, and perſuaded our author not to come near it, telling him it would kill him. Some of them got long ſticks, and touched the fiſh with them; but, finding the effect not ſo bad as they apprehended, they cut the ſticks ſhorter and ſhorter, and even at ſix inches length the fiſh had no effect. At laſt they ventured to touch it with their fingers, but could not bear it the twentieth part of a minute. By this time Mr. Moore underſtood it was a torpedo, or numb-fiſh, and had the curioſity to touch it with one of his fingers; but in a moment his arm was dead quite up to his elbow, which came to itſelf again as ſoon as he withdrew his hand from the fiſh. He repeated the experiment ſeveral times, and found it have the ſame effect, even after the fiſh was dead. He then ordered the fiſh to be ſkinned, and found that the benumbing quality lay in the ſkin only, which it intirely loſt when dried.

THIS is the plain matter of fact, as Mr. Moore has related it; but as it is one of the moſt curious ſubjects in all Natural Hiſtory, we think it will not be diſagreeable to inquire into the cauſe of ſuch a wonderful effect. But let us firſt obſerve, that, whereas Mr. Moore repreſents the torpedo to be like a gudgeon, other authors ſpeak of it as a flat fiſh, much of the figure of a thornback *, found

* It ſeems as if different ſorts of fiſhes were endued with a benumbing quality, there being no manner of likeneſs between the ſhape of a gudgeon and a thornback; and M. du Hamel, in his hiſtory of the Academy of Sciences, mentions a kind of torpedo which he compares to a conger-eel, a ſhape quite different from either of the former. M. Richer, from whom he has the account, affirms on his own knowledge, that they numb the arm ſtrongly when touched with a ſtick, and even ſometimes occaſion a vertigo.

commonly

commonly enough about the coaſts of Provence, Gaſcony, &c. and eaten by the people of thoſe countries. And whether the ſurprizing quality of the fiſh lies in its ſkin, as our author ſuppoſes, let the reader judge, after he has conſidered the following hypotheſes.

THERE are different ways of accounting for the effect produced by touching the torpedo. The firſt is that of the ancients, who contented themſelves with aſcribing a torporific virtue or faculty to the animal, which is juſt the ſame as ſaying nothing at all. The ſecond ſuppoſes the effect to depend on an infinite number of corpuſcles iſſuing continually from the fiſh, but more copiouſly under ſome circumſtances than others. This is the opinion moſt generally received, being adopted by Redi, Perrault, and Lorenzini, who thus explain themſelves: As the fire emits a quantity of corpuſcles proper to heat us, ſo the torpedo emits a number of corpuſcles fit to numb the part they inſinuate themſelves into, whether it be by entering in too great abundance, or by their falling into tracts or paſſages diſproportionate to their figures. The third account is that of Borelli, who looks upon this emiſſion of corpuſcles as imaginary, and ſays, that the fiſh, upon being touched, puts itſelf into a violent tremor or agitation, which occaſions a painful numbneſs in the hand that touches it: but M. Reaumur, whoſe hypotheſis is the laſt and juſteſt, could never obſerve any ſuch trembling, notwithſtanding he viewed the fiſh with great attention when ready to ſtrike the numbneſs.

THIS gentleman obſerves, that the torpedo, like other flat fiſhes, is not abſolutely flat, but it's back, or rather all the upper part of it's body, a little convex. Now M. Reaumur always found, that when the fiſh did not, or would not, produce any numbneſs in the perſon who touched it,

it, its back preſerved its natural convexity; but whenever it would diſpoſe itſelf to reſent a touch or thruſt, it gradually diminiſhed the convexity of its back parts, rendering them quite flat, and ſometimes even concave. The very moment after this diſpoſition, the numbneſs ſeizes the arm, the fingers that touched are obliged to withdraw, and all the flat and concave part of the body is again ſeen convex: and whereas it becomes flat ſo gradually as to be perceived, the return to its convexity is ſo ſwift, that it is abſolutely imperceptible. It is from this ſudden ſtroke, according to M. Reaumur, that the numbneſs of the arm ariſes, for the perſon, when he begins to feel it, imagines that his fingers have been violently ſtruck. The wonder is, how ſo ſoft a ſubſtance, as that of the fiſh, can give ſo rude a blow; and indeed a ſingle ſtroke of a ſoft body could never do it, but in this caſe there is an infinity of ſuch ſtrokes given in an inſtant. To underſtand this, we muſt conſider the mechaniſm of the parts whereon it depends, which are two very ſingular muſcles, deſcribed by ſeveral authors. They are ſhaped like a half-moon, and both together take up almoſt half the back of the fiſh, the one on the right ſide, the other on the left. Their origin is a little above the mouth, and they are ſeparated from each other by the Bronchia, into the laſt of which they are inſerted. But what is ſingular in them is their fibres, if we may give that name to a ſort of ſmaller muſcles as big as gooſe-quills, of an aſſemblage whereof the two great muſcles are formed. Theſe leſſer muſcles are hollow cylinders, their length nearly equal to the thickneſs of the fiſh, and ranged perpendicular to its upper and lower ſurfaces, accounting thoſe ſurfaces as nearly parallel planes.

Theſe

Theſe again are compoſed of twenty-five or thirty ſmaller cylinders placed over each other, and each full of a medullary ſubſtance.

Now we need only remember, that, when the torpedo is ready to ſtrike its numbneſs, it ſlowly flattens the ſurface of its upper part; and the whole mechaniſm, whereon its force depends, will be apparent. By that gradual contraction it bends, as it were, all its ſprings, renders its cylinders ſhorter, and at the ſame time augments their baſes; and, in all probability too, the large fibres, or little muſcles, at that inſtant loſe their cylindrical form, to fill the vacuities between them. The contraction being made, the longitudinal fibres are lengthened, the tranſverſe ones are ſhortened, and the ſoft matter they incloſe is driven upwards, which is promoted by an undulatory motion, apparent in the fibres when contracting. The parts of the torpedo being thus diſpoſed, a finger that touches it inſtantly receives a ſtroke, or rather ſeveral ſucceſſive ſtrokes, from each of the cylinders to which it is applied. As the ſoft matter is diſtributed into divers incloſures, it is more than probable that all the ſtrokes are not given preciſely at the ſame moment; nor indeed would they be ſo if there were no incloſures at all, but they ſerve however to augment the number of the ſprings, and conſequently the velocity and force of the action. Theſe quick reiterated ſtrokes ſhake the nerves, and ſuſpend or change the courſe of the animal ſpirits; or they produce a motion in the fibres of the nerves, which claſhes or diſagrees with that they ſhould have in order to move the arm, and occaſions a painful ſenſation. Hence it is, that the torpedo does not convey its numbneſs to any conſiderable degree, except when touched

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on theſe great muſcles *; ſo that the fiſh may be ſafely taken by the tail, which is the part by which the fiſhermen catch it.

As the torpedo lives on other fiſhes, it is probable, that its benumbing faculty is of uſe to it in catching them; and this is the opinion of Pliny, Ariſtotle, and many other naturaliſts. M. Reaumur had no fiſh alive, to try whether the torpedo would kill them; but, having ſhut up a drake in water with the fiſh for ſome time, the drake was taken out dead, doubtleſs from its too frequent contacts with the torpedo. But, what is ſtill more ſtrange than the torpedo's killing of fiſhes, the Hiſtory of Abyſſinia ſpeaks of its bringing dead ones to life again, they being ſeen to ſtir if put together in the ſame veſſel. What is related in the ſame hiſtory is much more credible, viz. that the

* Thoſe authors who have accounted for the effect of the torpedo from torporific effluvia, have been obliged to have recourſe to the ſame two muſcles; but then they only make them reſervoirs of the corpuſcles, whereby the numbneſs is effected. Lorenzini, who obſerved the contraction of the Torpedo as well as Reaumur, pretends that all the uſe of it is to ſqueeze thoſe corpuſcles out of the hollow fibres of theſe muſcles, wherein they are incloſed; but, though this theory is admitted by moſt authors, M. Reaumur ſhews it to be falſe by the following conſiderations: 1. Becauſe no numbneſs is conveyed, if the hand be at the leaſt diſtance from the torpedo; whereas, to uſe their own compariſon, if the fiſh numbs as the fire warms, the hand would be affected at a diſtance from the one as well as the other. 2. Becauſe the numbneſs is not felt till the contraction of the muſcles is over; whereas, were the cauſe in torporific particles thereby expreſſed, the effect would be felt during the time of the contraction. 3. Becauſe, if the numbneſs were the effect of ſuch particles, it would be conveyed by degrees, as the hand warms by degrees. 4. Becauſe the torpedo conveys its numbneſs to the hand through a hard ſolid body, but does not do it through the air.

Abyſſinians

Abyſſinians uſe the torpedo for the cure of fevers, by tying the patient to a table, and applying the fiſh ſucceſſively to all his members, which puts him to great pain, but effectually carries off the diſeaſe. Bellonius aſſures us, that the torpedo, applied to the ſoles of the feet, has proved ſucceſsful againſt fevers; and Dr. James ſays, it mitigates the violence of the pain in an inveterate head-ach: but we ſuppoſe ſuch inſtances very rarely occur.

BUILDINGS.

UNDER this head the reader will not expect to find any thing very remarkable, in countries inhabited by people, who have ſcarce any knowledge of the arts and ſciences, either liberal or mechanical. If there are any good ſtructures in thoſe parts of the world, they are owing to Europeans who have ſettled there for the ſake of trade; and theſe buildings are chiefly forts and factories, wherein we may ſuppoſe regard is had more to ſtrength and convenience, than to magnificence or ornament.

THE negro-houſes and towns, conſiſt only of ſmall conical cabbins, with no other light than what enters by the door, which is ſo low, that they are forced to ſtoop in entering it; after which, a man of ordinary ſtature cannot walk round, without hitting his head againſt the walls. In theſe little huts, fathers, mothers, brothers, ſiſters, ſervants and ſlaves, lie together promiſcuouſly. They are formed of a kind of wicker-work, plaiſtered over with earth, and covered with long graſs and palmetto leaves; but are ſometimes joined together by walls; by which means, thoſe of ſuperior rank have diſtinct and ſeparate apartments

ments, for the different parts of their families, and an additional hut for the reception of ſtrangers. In ſome parts a number of theſe huts built promiſcuouſly together form towns, and in other places, their towns are built of a circular form, with ſpiral ſtreets; hence in a village, not half a mile in diameter, it is ſaid, that a perſon is frequently obliged to walk two or three miles to viſit an acquaintance, when, by a ſhort croſs ſtreet, the diſtance might be reduced to an hundred paces.

SOME nations of the Mundingoes, however, build in a more commodious manner, the walls, being made of a fat binding clay, that ſeems ſmooth and hard like porcelain; their ſtructures are thatched with ſtraw, which projects beyond the building, to a little wall breaſt high, forming a ſmall gallery round the hut, in which they are ſheltered from the rays of the ſun. Mr. Adamſon mentions a village burnt down before his arrival, where the walls that withſtood the violence of the flames were partly of a beautiful red, and in a manner vitrified by the intenſe heat; but, at a diſtance, the whole ſeemed covered with a bright enamel, and reſembled the fineſt china.

THE Pholey towns indeed are built in a regular method, the houſes being ranged in ſtrait lines, and at proper diſtances from each other, to prevent the ſpreading of Fire; and thus they have good ſtreets and paſſages, a thing which the Mundingoes do not regard. The Pholeys houſes are kept very ſweet, for they are a cleanly people, eſpecially the women. Their towns are ſurrounded with paliſadoes, within which they have plantations of cotton, and on the outſide of this fence, they ſow their Indian corn. They have alſo a place near each town for their cattle, in the middle of which, is built a ſort of ſtage about eight feet high

high from the ground, and eight or ten feet wide; which is aſcended by a ladder, and has a roof of thatch over it, but the ſides are all open. Here, four or five men ſit up all night, with their arms, to guard the cattle from the lions and other ravenous animals. Numbers of ſtakes are drove into the ground in rings round the ſtage, and every evening the cattle are brought out of the meadows, and tied each to a ſtake, with a ſtrong rope, made of the bark of trees. They are ſo tame, and accuſtomed to this confinement, that they come to it without any difficulty; and, being milked in the evening, and again in the morning, they are turned looſe into their paſtures, where they are watched by herdſmen, to prevent their getting into the corn, or running into the woods. Theſe Pholeys underſtand very well the breeding and managing of cattle, and are almoſt the only people high up the river of whom beaſts can be purchaſed. What we have ſaid may give the reader ſome idea of a Pholey town, moſt of which are built upon the ſame model.

Of the Negroes of NIGRITIA and GUINEA.

CHILDREN of both ſexes wear no cloaths till they are thirteen or fourteen years of age, when thoſe of diſtinction wear a cotton cloth from the waiſt downwards, while the poorer ſort remain in their primitive nakedneſs. The women of the middle rank wear girdles of ruſhes, or palm leaves, neatly interwoven and hanging down to their knees. They likewiſe have copper, braſs, or iron bracelets round their wriſts, and large rings upon their legs, to which they hang ſilver bells. The moſt common dreſs is the tomy, which is made of woollen cloth, manufactured by themſelves.

ſelves. This the women tie round their waiſts, letting it fall to the knee; but the men, fixing it before, bring it between their legs, and faſten it to their girdle behind. Deſpicable as this dreſs muſt appear, thoſe who wear it are not without vanity, taking great pleaſure in adorning their woolly locks with little plates of gold, and other ornaments. The women endeavour to attract the regard of the men, by making a line of white, yellow, or red paint acroſs their forehead, with circles of the ſame round their arms, legs, and waiſt. The men wear much the ſame ornaments, which differ only in the ſize of the bracelets and rings on their arms, legs, fingers, and toes. The pooreſt negro is ſeldom without ſome of theſe, and their number is increaſed in proportion to the wealth and vanity of the wearer.

THE furniture of the common people conſiſts only of a few earthen veſſels, wooden bowls, diſhes, plates, calabaſhes, and the like utenſils; their mats ſupplying the place of chairs, tables, and beds, except one bed for the maſter of the family, which conſiſts of a kind of hurdle laid upon croſs pieces of wood, ſupported by wooden forks, a foot above the ground; upon this they throw a mat, which ſerves them for a matraſs, and frequently alſo for ſheets and covering.

BOTH the negroes of the interior countries, and thoſe on the coaſt, are ſaid to be ſo libidinous, as to abridge their lives, and even to emaciate themſelves before they reach their prime. This is ſaid to be their greateſt vice; and indeed nothing can be more prejudicial to ſociety. In every other reſpect, they are ſaid to be temperate, modeſt, gentle, and ſociable, in a far greater degree, than the negroes on the coaſt. They have an averſion to the ſhedding of human blood, and very ſeldom make war

war but in their own defence. They are united by friendſhip, and ready to aſſiſt and relieve each other. Hence, if a friend be under misfortunes, they will ſhare their cloaths, their proviſions, and all they have with him; and, ſhould it be their caſe to be diſtreſſed, they would meet with the ſame treatment from him.

POLYGAMY is allowed in all the negro nations; but, how numerous ſoever the wives may be, the huſband chiefly attaches himſelf to one; but, both here and on the coaſt, they abſtain from the connubial embrace, from the inſtant a woman is diſcovered to be pregnant.

IN the interior kingdoms of Sierra Leona, every child has a name given him on the tenth day after his birth, when the father, taking the infant, is attended by his domeſtics armed with bows and arrows, and makes a tour round the town, ſinging a kind of triumphal ſong, accompanied by inſtrumental muſic; while all the people they meet join their voices. Afterwards, a perſon takes the infant, and laying him upon a ſhield, placed in the midſt of the aſſembly, puts a bow and arrow into the infant's hands, and then pronounces a long diſcourſe to the ſpectators; after which he addreſſes himſelf to the infant, wiſhing his proſperity, and that he may reſemble his father in his induſtry, faithfulneſs, and hoſpitality; that he may be able to build his own houſe, and to conduct his own affairs; have no inclination for the wives of his neighbours, but be affectionate to his own; and be neither a drunkard, a glutton, or a ſpendthrift. Then giving the infant a name, he reſtores him to the arms of his mother or nurſe; and the aſſembly diſperſes, except a few ſelect friends, who have an entertainment provided for them, and ſpend the day in mirth and feſtivity. If the child be a female,

male, it is carried by the mother or nurſe to the midſt of the town, where the concourſe is greateſt, and there laid upon a mat, with a ſtick in her hand. A female orator pronounces a ſpeech, with her wiſhes that the child may inherit the accompliſhments of the mother, and, like her, be poſſeſſed of every female virtue, as chaſtity, obedience to her huſband, and affection to her children.

THE different nations of Sierra Leona acknowledge one ſupreme Being, the creator of all things, whom they call Canno, and to whom they attribute omnipreſence, infinite power and knowledge. But they believe that the dead are converted into ſpirits, whom they call januanins or protectors, who are employed in guarding their former friends; and their veneration for them is ſo extreme, that every village has a ſacred grove, ſet apart for their worſhip, to which, great quantities of proviſions are brought in the proper ſeaſons; and thoſe perſons, labouring under any affliction, implore the aid of the Januanins; but women, children, and ſlaves, are not allowed to enter theſe ſacred retreats; for a treſpaſs of this nature they ſuppoſe would be inſtantly puniſhed in the moſt examplary manner.

THE Quojans, one of theſe nations, have no leſs faith in magicians and ſorcerers, who they imagine ſuck human blood. They likewiſe believe there are other enchanters, whom they ſtyle Billees, that have a power over the ſeaſons, and can either promote, or entirely ſtop the growth of rice. Hence they never venture to paſs through a wood without company, for fear of meeting with a billee, buſied in culling plants and herbs.

THESE imaginary inviſible agents, particularly the Januanins, are artfully made, the moving ſprings, by which the affairs of government are conducted; for if a woman be accuſed of adultery,

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and there appears no other proof, but the allegation of her huſband, ſhe is acquitted upon beſeeching a ſpirit named Belli Pocri, to confound her, if ſhe varies from the truth; but if ſhe be afterwards convicted, her huſband muſt bring her in the night to a public place, where the council ſits; and there, after invoking the januanim, her eyes are covered, to prevent her ſeeing thoſe beings, who are to carry her out of the world; and ſhe is left for a while in the belief, that this will certainly be her fate. When ſhe has ſuffered the moſt dreadful apprehenſions, and the moſt painful ſuſpence, the eldeſt in council begins a ſolemn diſcourſe on the ſhamefulneſs of a diſorderly life, threatening her, if ſhe perſiſts in her guilt, with the moſt cruel puniſhment. Suddenly a confuſed murmur, that paſſes for the voice of the januanim, is heard, declaring, that though her crime merits the moſt rigorous chaſtiſement, ſhe will be pardoned, on account of its being her firſt tranſgreſſion, enjoining certain mortifications, and recommending the moſt auſtere chaſtity. But if ſhe fall a ſecond time under the ſame cenſure, the chief prieſt, with one of his miniſters, and proper officers, go early to her houſe, making a prodigious noiſe, with a kind of rattles; and ſeizing her, bring her to the court, where ſhe is ordered to walk three times round the market place, attended by the ſame noiſe and inſtruments. Then, without hearing her defence, or promiſes of reformation, they conduct her to a wood, ſacred to the januanim, from which time ſhe is never more heard of, nor are the people ever permitted to mention her name, they being ſo credulous as to believe, that the januanims have carried her out of the world.

Mr. FRANCIS MOORE, ſeveral years factor to the royal African company of England (whom we have occaſionally quoted already) has given us great light into thoſe parts of Africa, which border on the river Gambia, to the diſtance of five hundred miles from the ocean. The different kingdoms, ſays he, upon the banks of this river, are inhabited by ſeveral races of people, Mundingoes, Jolloifs, Pholeys, Floops, and Portugueſe; which laſt, having ſettled there about the year 1420, have cohabited with the Mundingoes, till they are almoſt as black as they are; but they ſtill retain a ſort of baſtard Portugueſe language, and nothing vexes them more than to call them negroes, that being a term which they uſe only for ſlaves. The Mundingoes are the moſt numerous of theſe nations.

ON the north ſide of the Gambia, lies the country of the Jolloifs, which is very large, extending, even to the river Senegal. Theſe people are much blacker and handſomer than the Mundingoes, not having the broad noſes and thick lips, peculiar to the Mundingoes and Floops. In ſhort, none of the countries about this river can come up to the Jolloifs for blackneſs of ſkin and beauty of features.

IN every country and kingdom, on each ſide of the river there are ſome Pholeys, a people of a tawny colour, much like the Arabs, who live in hords or clans, build towns, and yet are independent of the kings in whoſe territories they live; for if they are ill treated in one nation, they break up their town, and remove to another. They have chiefs of their own, who rule with great moderation, and this form of government goes on eaſily, the people are of a good and quiet diſpoſition, and ſo well inſtructed in what is juſt and right, that

that a man who does ill, is the abomination of all, and none will ſupport him againſt the chiefs, or endeavour to ſcreen him from juſtice. The natives here uſing very little land, the kings are willing enough to give the Pholeys leave to cultivate as much as they pleaſe; and accordingly, though ſtrangers, they are the greateſt planters in the country. They are very induſtrious and frugal, and raiſe much more corn and cotton than they conſume, which they ſell at eaſy rates, and are very hoſpitable and kind to all; ſo that the natives reckon it a bleſſing to have a Pholey town in the neighbourhood. As their humanity extends to all, they are doubly kind to thoſe of their own race; inſomuch that, if they know of one of them being made a ſlave, all the Pholey's will join to redeem him. Having plenty of food, they not only ſupport the old, the blind, and the lame amongſt themſelves, but, as far as their ability goes, ſupply the wants of the Mundingoes, great numbers of whom they have maintained in times of famine. They are very ſeldom angry, and Mr. Moore never heard them abuſe one another; though this mildneſs does not proceed from want of courage; for they are as brave a people as any in Africa, and handle their arms with great dexterity. None of them, except here and there one, will drink any brandy, or any thing ſtronger than water and ſugar.

On the ſouth ſide of the river Gambia, and but a little way inland, are the people called Floops, who are in a manner wild. They border cloſe to the Mundingoes, and are bitter enemies to each other. Their country is of a vaſt extent; but they are under the government of no one chief, and yet ſuch an union ſubſiſts among them, that the Mundingoes with all their forces, though very

numerous, cannot reduce them to ſubjection. They have the character of never forgiving, or at leaſt never ſuffering an injury to go unrevenged; but then, to make amends, the leaſt good office done them is always repaid by a grateful acknowledgement.

As to the languages uſed about the river Gambia, the moſt general is the Mundingo, by which name the country, as well as the people is called. If you can ſpeak that language, you may travel from the river's mouth up to the country of the Joncoes, or merchants, ſo called from their buying every year a vaſt number of ſlaves there, and bringing them down to the lower parts of the river, to ſell the white people; which country Mr. Moore believes to be no leſs than ſix weeks journey from Jame's Fort, which belongs to the African company, and is ſituated on an iſland in the Gambia, about ten leagues from the mouth of the river.

THE next language moſtly uſed in this country in the Creole Portugueſe, which is ſo corrupted, as to be ſcarce underſtood at Liſbon; but it is ſooner learnt by Engliſhmen than any other language in thoſe parts, and is always ſpoken by the linguiſts who ſerve both the ſeparate traders and the company. The Arabic is ſpoken by the Pholeys, and by moſt of the Mahometans on the river, though they have alſo a vulgar tongue, the Arabic being to them what latin is to us in Europe. The Mundingoes have alſo a cant language, which is ſpoken only by the men, and is ſeldom made uſe of in any diſcourſe but what relates to a dreadful bugbear, called mumbo-jumbo, by which the women are kept in awe. This ſtratagem being perhaps peculiar to theſe parts of Africa, Mr. Moore's account of it will doubtleſs be agreeable to the reader.

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THE mumbo-jumbo, ſays our author, is a kind of idol dreſſed in a long coat made of the bark of trees, with a tuft of fine ſtraw on the top of it; and when the perſon wears it, it is eight or nine feet high. This is a thing invented by the men to keep their wives in ſubjection, who are ſo ignorant (or at leaſt they are obliged to pretend to be ſo) as to take it for a wild man; and indeed a ſtranger would hardly take it for a human creature, by reaſon of the diſmal noiſe it makes, which few of the natives can imitate. When the men have any diſpute with the women, this mumbo-jumbo is ſent for to decide it, which is always in favour of the men. His authority is ſuch, that he can order thoſe about him to do what he pleaſes, either to fight, kill, or make priſoners; but it is to be obſerved, that no body is allowed to come armed into his preſence. When the women hear him coming, they run away and hide themſelves; but ſometimes he ſends for them all to come and ſit down, and orders them to ſing or dance, juſt as he pleaſes; and if any refuſe to come, they are brought by force and whipped. This bugbear never comes abroad but in the night-time, which makes it have the better effect. In the day-time the coat is fixed upon a pole near the town it belongs to, there being few towns of note without one.—When a man enters into this ſociety, he ſwears in the moſt ſolemn manner never to divulge the ſecret to any woman, or to any perſon who is not a member of it; and none are admitted under ſixteen years of age. The people ſwear by the mumbo-jumbo, and the oath taken by it is very ſtrictly obſerved.

ABOUT the year 1727, the king of Jagra, having a very inquiſitive woman to his wife, was ſo weak

as to diſcloſe to her the whole ſecret of this myſtery, and ſhe revealed it to ſome other women of her acquaintance. This at laſt came to the ears of ſome who were no friends to the king, and having conſulted upon the matter, and fearing they ſhould not be able to govern their wives if the thing took vent, they took the coat, put a man into it, went to the king's town, ſent for him out, and taxed him with it, which he not denying, they ſent for his wife, and killed them both upon the ſpot. So the poor man died for obliging his wife, and the poor woman for her curioſity.

WE ſhall now give a conciſe view of the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants of Guinea, the whole coaſt of which is much frequented by the Europeans, and is uſually divided into the ſlave, the gold, the ivory, and grain coaſt. Though this whole country is ſo unhealthful for European conſtitutions, the natives have but few diſtempers. The ſmall-pox is the moſt fatal to them of any, ſometimes ſweeping them away like a plague, as is the caſe in other warm climates. Another epidemical diſtemper is that of worms, which are found between the ſkin and the fleſh in all parts of their bodies, but chiefly in the legs, and give the patient very great torment till they are extracted. The manner in which they are drawn out is this: when the worm has broke through the tumour it occaſions, his head commonly appearing firſt, after they have drawn it out a little way, they faſten it to a ſtick, round which they wind a ſmall part of it every day, till the whole be extracted, and the patient freed from his pain. If the worm happens to break, the torture is increaſed, the remaining part either rotting in the body, or breaking out at ſome other place. Some of

of theſe worms are ſaid to be an ell long, and others much longer *.

* We have an account that in Perſia there are very ſlender worms, ſix or ſeven yards in length, which breed in the legs and other parts of men's bodies; and in the Philoſophical Tranſactions we read of ſeveral remarkable operations, whereby worms were taken out of unſuſpected parts of the body, the operators being chiefly women. Mrs. Mary Haſtings is there recorded as famous for diſcovering worms hid in the face, gums, tongue, &c. which, with a gooſe-quill, ſhe could take out of any part affected. Mr. Dent relates, that he himſelf was cured of certain tumours on his tongue by Mrs. French, who, piercing the ſwelling with a lancet, drew out five or ſix worms at a time; inſomuch that in eight days, he aſſures us, ſhe took out of his tongue above a hundred worms, and thirty out of his gums. It is true, the ordinary place of worms is in the inteſtines, though there is ſcarce any part of the body but is ſometimes infected with them; and as to thoſe bred in the legs, the caſe is common enough among the negroes, and very well atteſted. Mr. Smith, in his Natural Hiſtory of Nevis, tells us, that his negro-man had a ſlender whitiſh worm that came gradually out of his leg, not far from the ſhin-bone, at the rate of an inch or more every day. As it came out, he wound it round a very ſmall piece of ſtick, that part of it immediately dying when tied faſt with a piece of ſilk. His leg ſwelled and was very painful before the worm had forced it's way through the ſkin, but then it grew ſomewhat eaſier; however, if by rubbing his leg againſt any thing the worm happened to break, his leg would ſwell again till the remainder of the worm came out in the ſame gradual manner, after which the ſore was ſoon healed without a plaiſter. This worm was about a yard and a half long; but what is this, or even the length of thoſe worms in Perſia, compared to that of the tape-worm or joint-worm, which lies variouſly convoluted in the inteſtines, being ſometimes as long as all the guts, and ſometimes a great deal longer? Borrichius aſſures us, that a patient of his voided, in a year's time, eight hundred feet of this ſort of worm, without coming to the head: for the patient always obſerved it to break off in voiding. Dr. Tyſon himſelf had a patient who voided vaſt quantities of this worm for ſeveral years, in pieces from two to ſix or more yards in length,

THE ſlave coaſt, which lies to the eaſt, is ſandy, barren, and without wood or trees, except the palm, great numbers of which grow there; yet it is pretty well provided with cattle, and there is no want of river fiſh; but they can get none from the ſea, on account of the prodigious ſurf on the coaſt. But in ſome parts, on leaving the ſhore, the ſcene is changed from a dreadful ſwelling ſurf and barren ſand, to moſt beautiful meadows and fields, enamelled all the year with the fineſt verdure, particularly in the kingdom of Whidah, where the land riſes by an eaſy and equal aſcent, towards the interior parts, affording the moſt delightful landſcapes. The height of the aſcent is bounded by a chain of mountains that defends the country from it's neighbours to the north-eaſt. The trees are ſtraight and tall, preſenting to the eye fine groves, and extenſive avenues, clear of weeds and bruſh-wood. Every part of the country is there converted to ſome uſe, except thoſe deſtined by nature for pleaſure, where the woods ſpring up ſpontaneouſly in the moſt beautiful rural ſimplicity. Spring and autumn ſwiftly ſucceed each other; for no ſooner has the huſbandman cut his corn, than he again plows and ſows the ground; yet it is ſo far from being worn out, that the next crop ſprings up with the ſame vigour as the former. With all theſe advantages, Whidah is ſo populous, that one

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length, which all put together, he ſays, would much exceed the length of that of Borrichius. The joints in this worm are very numerous, for in a piece four and twenty feet long the doctor counted five hundred and ſeven; and on each joint he obſerved a protuberant orifice, which he takes to be ſo many mouths, the beſt microſcopes diſcovering no mouth in what uſually paſſes for the head of the animal. It is frequently found in dogs, oxen, and ſeveral ſorts of fiſhes.—See Dr. Tyſon's account of this worm in the Philoſ. Tranſ. No. 146.

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ſingle village contains as many inhabitants as ſome petty kingdoms on the ſame coaſt.

THE negroes of Whidah are, in general, tall, well made, ſtraight and robuſt. Their complexion is black, but not of ſuch a gloſſy jet as that of the people on the gold coaſt. The people are, in general, better dreſſed than moſt of the other negroes on the coaſt. The dreſs of the king, who is eſteemed the moſt powerful monarch in Guinea, and that of the great officers, is nearly the ſame, and very different from that of the common people; it conſiſting of a piece of white linen, about three ells long, wrapped round their waiſt, in a decent and becoming manner; and then hanging down to the feet like a petticoat. Upon this they wear a ſilk garment of the ſame ſize and form, and over this laſt have a richer piece of ſilk, ſix or ſeven ells in length, which they tye by the two corners, and making a great bunch on the right hip, the reſt hangs down to the ground, ſo as to form a train; but none are allowed to wear red, except the royal family. Some authors ſay, that the king and the great officers wear necklaces, with gold chains and bracelets of pearl, gold and coral. The common people wear nothing on their heads to ſhelter themſelves from the rain, or the heat of the ſun; but the great men cover their heads with an European hat and feather. As to the common people they generally wear only a cotton-cloth, or a few herbs, faſtened round their waiſt; but the women of the ſame rank, have five or ſix cloths, the longeſt of which covers half the leg; and the others, which are over it, are each ſhorter than the other.

THE king's wives, and thoſe of the great men, are like the reſt, naked from the girdle upwards, and from the waiſt downwards, have two or three coverings of cotton and ſilk, the longeſt of which

reaches to their ancles, and the others are a little ſhorter. Theſe are all very large, and form a roll about the hips, that makes them appear as if they wore a hoop-petticoat. They are adorned with necklaces; from the wriſt to the elbow, they have ſtrings of pearl, gold, and coral; and on their heads wear a cap of platted and coloured ſtraw, which is very light, and has ſome reſemblance to the pope's triple crown.

BOTH the Europeans, the nobility, and all the rich negroes, when they go abroad, are carried in palanquins, which are here a kind of covered hammocks, and are an excellent defence againſt the heat of the climate, which is ſo great, that an European cannot walk in the middle of the day, without extraordinary fatigue.

THE inhabitants of Whidah exceed all the negroes in good and bad qualities. They treat the Europeans with extraordinary civility, courteſy and reſpect, and have an obliging manner of addreſſing each other. According to Boſman, in their ſervility, and ſeveral other reſpects, they perfectly reſemble the Chineſe. Thus, when any one viſits, or accidentally meets his ſuperior, he inſtantly drops upon his knees, kiſſes the earth three times, claps his hands, and wiſhes him a good day or night, which the other returns in the poſture in which he then happens to be, by gently clapping his hands, and wiſhing him the ſame. The like reſpect is ſhewn to fathers by their children, to huſbands by their wives, and to an elder brother by the younger. Every thing is delivered to, or received from, a ſuperior on the knee; and the clapping of the hands together, is eſteemed a mark of ſtill more profound reſpect. When perſons of equal rank meet, they each drop down, clap their hands, and mutually ſalute each other, while the

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ſame ceremonies are obſerved and imitated by their ſeveral attendants; whence above a hundred perſons may ſometimes be ſeen down on their knees together; and this idle ceremony, ſays he, might eaſily be miſtaken for their being engaged in ſome public act of devotion. If a ſuperior ſneezes, all round him fall on their knees, clap their hands, and wiſh him happineſs. Though idleneſs is the favourite vice of the Africans, people of both ſexes are here ſo laborious and diligent, that they never deſiſt till they have finiſhed their undertaking; carrying the ſame perſeverance into every action of their lives. Like the Chineſe too, they are ſo extremely addicted to gaming, that after having loſt their whole ſubſtance, they play for their wives and children; and when they have loſt them, ſtake their own liberty, and thus become ſlaves to their own countrymen. It is ſurpriſing, ſays our author, how a nation confined to ſo ſmall a ſpot of ground, ſhould differ ſo widely in their manners, from the ſurrounding kingdoms, with which they keep up a conſtant intercourſe. One would imagine that they had a ſoil, a climate, and a nature peculiar to themſelves, and different from that of the people who are only a few miles diſtant.

THE crown of Whidah is hereditary, unleſs the great men have ſome extraordinary reaſons for excluding the eldeſt ſon, and placing the crown on the head of one of his brothers. But the eldeſt ſon muſt have been born after the king's acceſſion, for thoſe he had before his aſcending the throne, are only conſidered as private perſons. They have here a very extraordinary cuſtom, which, it is ſaid, is never to be violated. The ſucceſſor is no ſooner born than he is carried by the great men into the province of Zangua, on the frontiers of the kingkom, where he is educated as a private perſon,

without knowing his birth; and none of the great men are allowed to viſit or receive viſits from him. Thoſe charged with his maintainance, though they know his birth, are prohibited under pain of death, from giving him the leaſt hint of his quality, or treating him otherwiſe than as their own child. By this means the prince knowing nothing of ſtate affairs, is obliged for a long time to abandon the government to the management of his nobles, and generally paſſes ſeveral months, and frequently ſome years, before he is crowned; but this is no ſooner done, than he inſtantly becomes a kind of deity, who is never approached but with the moſt profound reverence. The nobles of the firſt rank, are ſometimes permitted to eat in his preſence, but never with him; for this honour is reſerved for his women alone, who are ſaid to amount to three or four thouſand. And it is never known in what part of the palace he ſleeps. The ignorance and meanneſs in which he is bred, generally gives him a high reliſh for pleaſure, and he uſually lives in a moſt ſlothful, luxurious, and debauched effeminacy among his women, without enjoying the converſation of men, or thoſe exerciſes that are adapted to ſtrengthen his mind, and give vigour to his body.

BUT notwithſtanding the king's being treated with the utmoſt ſervility by his own ſubjects, when the captains of ſhips wait upon him, he receives them in the hall of audience, cauſes eaſy chairs to be brought them, and ſometimes drinks and ſmokes with them. Trade has introduced into Whidah many of the elegancies and luxuries of Europe, and all the nobility and rich merchants, endeavour to furniſh their houſes, in the ſame manner. The palace is adorned with magnificent beds, canopies, eaſy chairs, looking-glaſſes, and every thing fit to

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adorn a houſe in that climate. The king and nobility are furniſhed with cooks, inſtructed by thoſe of France; ſo that when an entertainment is given to an European, he finds the tables of the negro lords ſerved with as many delicacies as thoſe of Europe. They are covered with fine linen, and veſſels of ſilver and ſervices of China. Wine is brought them from France, Spain, Madeira, and the Canaries; they are alſo ſupplied with brandy, ſweetmeats, chocolate, tea, and coffee. This elegance is, however, confined to the great and wealthy, for the common people ſtill preſerve their ancient manners.

THE moſt ſenſible part of the people believe in one ſpiritual Being, who rewards virtue and puniſhes vice; who cauſes the ſun to ſhine, the heavens to thunder, the ſky to be covered with lightning, and the clouds to pour down rain. They maintain that his reſidence is in the heavens, whence with infinite goodneſs he governs the world; but ſuppoſe that it would be preſumption in them to addreſs their petitions to him, and therefore they have four principal objects of worſhip; the ſerpent, which holds the firſt rank, the trees, the ſea, and Agoya, the God of councils.

THE people thus account for their worſhipping the ſerpent: the inhabitants of Whidah being ready to give battle to the king of Ardrah, a great ſerpent came from the enemies army to theirs; and appearing to fawn upon every body, the chief marabout, or high prieſt, ventured to take it in his hands, and holding it on high, ſhewed it to the whole army, who being amazed at the prodigy, proſtrated themſelves before the harmleſs animal, and then attacked the enemy with ſuch courage and reſolution, that they gained a compleat victory, which the credulous ſoldiers attributing to the

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ſnake, they took it with them, built it a houſe, brought it proviſions, and in a ſhort time, the new God eclipſed all the others. As it's worſhip encreaſed in proportion to the imaginary favours they received from it, they erected a more ſumptuous houſe, with many courts and ſpacious lodgings; it had an high prieſt, and an intire order of marabouts to ſerve it. They dedicated to it, the moſt beautiful women, and that it might never want ſervants, they annually choſe new ones. This ſerpent is ſtill worſhipped in his houſe or temple, upon various occaſions; but the offerings and ſacrifices made to him, are far from being confined to bulls and rams, loaves of bread and fruit; the high prieſt frequently preſcribing a conſiderable quantity of valuable merchandize, as gold-rings, brandy, gunpowder, &c. Very ſenſible negroes in other reſpects, gravely aſſert, that the ſerpent they now worſhip, is the ſame to which they owe the victory which freed them from the oppreſſion of the king of Ardrah; it has however multiplied extremely, and it's poſterity do no injury but permit the people to put them into their boſoms, and into their beds.

THEY are enemies to none but the black ſerpents, which they always endeavour to deſtroy. The people cannot miſtake one for the other, the venomous ſerpent being black, four yards long, and only an inch and a half in diameter; while the beneficent ſerpent, ſeldom exceeds five feet and a half in length, and yet is of the thickneſs of a man's leg. It's head is large and round, it's tail pointed, and it's ſkin, is of a whitiſh colour, agreeably diverſified with waves of yellow, brown, and blue.

THE inhabitants of this country eſteem themſelves happy when one of theſe ſnakes honours their houſe with it's preſence; and not only make

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it a bed, but if it be a female with young, make her a little houſe, to which ſhe retires to bring them forth; and when ſhe or her young want food, bring it them. If any one ſhould venture to kill one of thoſe reptiles, he would be put to a cruel death. However, neither the black ſnakes, nor the ſwine, pay any regard to their divinity, but kill and eat them; though it always coſts the life of thoſe animals, when they are caught in the fact; and nothing can ſave a hog from being inſtantly killed; in this caſe, the people have no reſpect to thoſe to whom they belong; for though they are the king's, they are killed on the ſpot, and their fleſh is the property of him who ſlaughters them.

THE inhabitants of Ardrah are in many reſpects, different from theſe of Whidah. The dreſs of the courtiers conſiſts of two ſilk or brocade paans or petticoats, with a broad ſcarf drawn acroſs the breaſt and ſhoulders. The people of inferior rank wear five or ſix paans, one over another, made of cotton-cloth, manufactured in the country; and thoſe who can afford it, have them adorned with gold ſtuds. Many perſons of diſtinction wear over their ſhoulders, a ſhort ſattin mantle, as a morning dreſs; but in viſits, this is laid aſide, and the natural black ſkin preferred, as more beautiful and becoming. The high prieſt has a long piece of white cotton wrapped round him, plaited in a pretty taſte. He has long cotton drawers; on his head, he wears either a cap, or an European hat; and on his feet, ſlippers or ſandals of red leather; by his ſide, he has a large cutlaſs, with a gilt handle, and carries a cane in his hand. He alone ſtands covered in the king's preſence; but the nobility pull off their caps and ſlippers before they enter the preſence chamber.

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THE women are extremely fond of dreſs; they appear clothed with the fineſt ſattins, chintz, and brocades, adorned with a profuſion of gold; the men never thinking them genteelly dreſſed, without their being loaded with a ſuperfluous quantity of ſilk.

THE moſt uſual food of the inhabitants is beef, mutton, pork, goats, and dogs-fleſh, with rice, fruit, roots, and many kinds of vegetables; and they are ſo far from worſhipping the tame and gentle ſerpents of the adjacent kingdom of Whidah, that they ſearch for them, in order to kill and eat them.

ALL the Pagan negroes, and even the inhabitants of Madagaſcar, have what they term their fetiches, but in different countries, theſe kind of idols, have different names, and are formed of different ſubſtances. The people of this country give that name to ſome ornament worn on the head, or to any other ſubſtance, dedicated to an inviſible ſpirit. Beſides each feticheer, or prieſt, has here a peculiar fetiche, prepared in a different manner. This is, for the moſt part, a large wooden pipe, filled with earth, oil, blood, the bones of dead men and beaſts, hair, feathers, and the like. By theſe mixtures, formed to affect the minds of the ſuperſtitious, the prieſt and people, probably ſuppoſe, that there is formed a kind of necromantic charm, by which ſome ſpirit may be prevailed on to perform what is deſired. Thus, if a negro on the gold coaſt takes an oath before this fetiche, he firſt inquires of the prieſt, what is it's name, each having a peculiar one; then calling the fetiche by it, he repeats what he is to confirm by oath, deſiring that he may be puniſhed with death, if he ſwears falſly; then walking round the pipe, he ſtops at the ſame place, and repeats the oath a ſecond

cond time as before, and after this a third time. The fetiſheer then takes ſome of the ingredients out of the pipe, with which he touches the perſon's head, arms, belly, and legs: and, holding it above his head, turns it three times round. He then cuts off a bit of the nail of one finger on each hand, and of one toe on each foot, and ſome of the hair of the head; all which he puts into the pipe, and thus the ceremony is concluded.

THE negroes of the eaſtern part of the ivory or tooth coaſt are called Quaques; and are rather above the common ſtature, clean limbed, and well proportioned; but though, at the firſt glance, their features appear very diſagreeable, they are repreſented as the moſt rational, civilized, and polite people in all Guinea. They are ſaid to conſider long nails as a great ornament, to dreſs their hair in treſſes, which they keep ſeparate, by a paſte of palm oil, and a kind of red earth; and daily to anoint their bodies with the ſame kind of paſte. They wear round the ſmall of their legs, large iron rings, and are pleaſed with their jingling ſound, and that of the bells faſtened to them; in the multitude of which, their dignity and grandeur conſiſts. The common people have no other cloaths, but a piece of cloth faſtened round their waiſt; the wealthy, however, have a ſort of cloak or ſurplice, with long ſleeves which hang down below their knees; and by their ſide, wear a hanger.

ACCORDING to Villault, their women, ſetting aſide their complexion, which is a jet black, would in Europe, paſs for beauties, from the brillancy of their eyes, the regularity of their features, and their tall, ſlender, genteel ſhape. Some of them, adorn their hair with little gold plates; in the making of which their artiſts endeavour to excel. Theſe plates are, in general, thin, ſmall, and of little

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value, but ſome women wear ſuch a number of them as make them amount to a conſiderable ſum. Thoſe unable to adorn their heads with ſuch ſplendour, divide their woolly hair into a multitude of ſmall treſſes, which they adorn with ivory, cowries, pieces of oyſter-ſhells, and other ſhining baubles; which are alſo worn by thoſe who have plates of gold. The women wear only a cloth hanging down before.

THESE negroes drink a kind of beer called pito, and palm-wine, mixed with water; and according to Des Marchis, drunkenneſs is conſidered by them as a crime of ſo odious a nature, that the laws have prohibited it under the ſevereſt penalties; it being a maxim among them, that to deſtroy one's reaſon, is to level man with the brute; to prejudice ſociety, by robbing it of it's uſeful members; and to deſtroy the effects of all laws and government; ſince a man, void of reaſon, is ignorant of the propriety of action, and cannot be influenced by laws. They are offended at obſerving, among the Europeans, the men kiſſing each other, after a long abſence, or at parting; which they conſider as an affront to the other ſex. Their form of ſaluting is laying hold of the fingers, and making them crack.

IT is ſaid to be here a conſtant rule, as well as in India, for the ſon to follow the profeſſion of the father; the ſon of a weaver, being always bred a weaver; and that of a ſmith, a ſmith; but this is ſo far from improving them, in the knowledge of the mechanic arts, that they are ſtill very indifferent workmen. According to Mr. Atkins, a common lock is ſuch a curioſity, as to draw a great number of people together to ſee it; a watch ſtill increaſes their admiration, and what they term making paper ſpeak, is quite miraculous. If they

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are ſent with a note, and told the contents before they go, they frequently make the experiment, whether the Europeans deceive them, in pretending to interpret the thoughts of an abſent perſon, by thoſe crooked characters: this they do by aſking the contents, when their ſurprife is inconceivable, on hearing the note read. Of this they can form no idea, and therefore are ready to believe that the white men have ſome familiar ſpirit that acts as factor or broker on theſe occaſions. Theſe negroes, however, make pieces of cotton, that are not only extremely fine, but have very beautiful colours.

MANUFACTURES, TRADES, &c.

The negroes of the grain coaſt are eſteemed excellent mechanics, particularly the ſmiths, who underſtand the art of tempering ſteel and other metals, making arms, and other inſtruments of ſteel. They have alſo workmen who build canoes of different ſizes, upon certain regular principles. They have likewiſe made ſeveral improvements in huſbandry, particularly with reſpect to the cultivation of rice, millet, and Guinea pepper.

The Jolloifs, as Mr. Moore informs us, make the fineſt ſort of cotton-cloth, and that in large quantities. Their pieces are generally twenty-ſeven yards long, but never above nine inches wide; ſo that they cut them to what length they pleaſe, and ſew them together very neatly, to make them ſerve the purpoſe of broader cloths. After the cotton is cleanſed from the ſeed, they ſpin it by hand, with the ſpindle and diſtaff, and weave it with a ſhuttle and loom of very coarſe workmanſhip. For wearing, they make them up into pairs, one about three yards long, and a yard and a half

wide, which is to cover their ſhoulders and body; the other about the ſame width, only two yards long, to cover them from the waiſt downwards. Such a pair is cloathing either for a man or woman, but the manner of wearing them is ſomewhat different. Our author ſays he has ſeen a pair of cloths ſo fine, and dyed ſo bright, as to be worth thirty ſhillings ſterling. Some of their colours are very lively, which are either blue or yellow, the former dyed with indigo, the latter, with barks of trees.

THE negroes in general have few manual arts among them, which yet ſeems more owing to idleneſs, than want of capacity. Thoſe of Guinea are chiefly employed in matting of chairs, making wooden or earthen cups, copper ointment boxes, and arm-rings of gold, ſilver, or ivory, with ſome other toys. Though their tools are very indifferent, they can make ſabres and all ſorts of arms they want, (guns only excepted) as well as whatever is required for their agriculture or domeſtic uſes. Their chief implements are a kind of hard ſtone inſtead of an anvil, a pair of tongs, and a ſmall pair of bellows, with three or more pipes, which blow very ſtrong, and are an invention of their own. But their moſt curious manufactures are the gold and ſilver hatbands which they make for the Dutch, the thread and contexture whereof are ſo fine, that they would not be eaſily imitated by our European artiſts.

THE chief trade of Negroland and Guinea is in gold, ſlaves, elephants teeth, and bees-wax. Of the gold of theſe countries we have already ſpoken towards the beginning of this chapter; and the ſame merchants that bring it from the inland parts to the factories on the river Gambia, bring likewiſe elephants teeth, and in ſome years, ſlaves to the

the amount of two thouſand, moſt of which are priſoners taken in war. The merchants buy them of the princes who take them; and their way of bringing them is to tie them by the neck with leather-thongs, about a yard diſtant from one another, thirty or forty in a ſtring, each of them carrying upon his head a bundle of corn, or an elephant's tooth. In their way from the mountains, they travel through very great woods, where, for ſome days they can get no water but what they carry with them in bags made of ſkins. They uſe aſſes as well as ſlaves in carrying their goods, but no camels nor horſes.

BESIDES, the ſlaves brought down by the merchants, there are a great many purchaſed all along the river, perhaps a thouſand one year with another. Theſe are either taken in war, as the former, or people condemned for crimes, or elſe ſtolen, which is very frequent; but the African company's ſervants buy none of the laſt, if they ſuſpect them to be ſuch, without ſending for the alcade (a ſort of judge) or the chief men of the place, and conſulting with them about the matter. Since the ſlave-trade has been carried on, the natives have changed all their puniſhments into ſlavery; and there being an advantage ariſing from ſuch condemnations, they often ſtrain hard for crimes in order to have the benefit of ſelling the criminal. Not only murder, theft, and adultery, but every trifling fault is puniſhed in this manner *.

SEVERAL

* Mr. Moore tells us, that a man was brought to him to be ſold for having ſtolen a tobacco-pipe; but he ſent for the alcade, and with much ado perſuaded the injured party to accept of a compoſition, and give the man his liberty. —In Cantore, a man ſeeing a tyger eating a deer, which he had killed and

SEVERAL of the natives have ſlaves born in their families, who ſometimes grow very numerous; inſomuch that all the inhabitants of a village near Brucoe, reckoned about two hundred people, are all the wives, ſlaves, or children of one man. In ſome parts of Africa they ſell the ſlaves born in the family; but about the river Gambia they look upon ſuch a practice with abhorrence. Mr. Moore never heard of more than one perſon that ever ſold a family-ſlave, except for ſuch crimes as they would have been ſold for if they had been free. If one family ſlave commits a crime, the maſter cannot ſell him without the joint conſent of the reſt; for if he does they will all run away, and meet with protection in the next kingdom.

WE are told that not only criminals and priſoners of war are ſold for ſlaves, but debtors alſo; and ſometimes the debtor's whole family and all his relations are included in the cruel ſentence. It is likewiſe ſaid that men ſell even their wives and children when they have offended them, whilſt others leſſen their families under an apprehenſion they ſhall not be able to maintain them; and if a famine or great ſcarcity happens, they will ſell themſelves to one another for bread. One of the petty princes on the coaſt of Guinea is reported to have ſold, on ſome ſmall diſguſt, a ſcore of his wives to a captain of a ſhip at once; and in times

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and hung up near his houſe, fired at the tyger, and the bullet killed a man; upon which the king not only condemned him to be ſold, but alſo his mother, three brothers, and three ſiſters. They were brought to Mr. Moore for ſale, who was ſo much affected at the ſight of them, that he would not buy them; but they were ſent farther down the river, and ſold to ſome ſeparate traders, and the king had the goods for which they were purchaſed.

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of full peace nothing is more common than for the negroes of one nation to ſteal thoſe of another, and ſell them to the Europeans. There have been inſtances alſo of children ſelling their fathers and mothers, when they have been weary of them, and wanted to enjoy their poſſeſſions; which has occaſioned a law in ſome countries, that children ſhall not inherit the goods or eſtates of their parents. Theſe are the various ways by which the unhappy negroes are frequently reduced from flouriſhing circumſtances to a ſtate of ſlavery, and brought down to the coaſt to be ſold to the merchants of Europe*.

ANOTHER

* We cannot diſmiſs this ſubject without obſerving, that the ſlave trade is a ſort of commerce ſcarce defenſible either on the foot of religion or humanity. The African company's factors indeed are much to be commended for not purchaſing ſuch ſlaves as they ſuſpect to be ſtolen, without inquiring into the affair: but as to the private traders, who frequently take the poor negroes by force, or decoy them on board and treacherouſly carry them off, the practice is utterly inexcuſable, and deſerves the ſevereſt puniſhment. Mr. Smith tells us, that when he was at Nevis, a captain of a private trader went to the coaſts of Guinea, and having decoyed two ſons of one of the petty kings of that country, with their attendants, on board his ſhip, ſailed away for the Weſt Indies, and ſold them all. The gentleman who bought the boys fitted out a ſloop with a proper cargo, and ſent them back as a preſent to their father, not doubting to make an advantageous voyage of it; but the ſloop was not returned when our author left Nevis. The captain (as he obſerves) was a villain, and an enemy to his country; for if the black prince, the father of the two boys, had maſſacred all the Engliſhmen that came in his way for ſome time afterwards, pray who could juſtly blame him?—Mr. Smith mentions another captain, who ſtole ſome negroes off the coaſt of Guinea, and ſold a ſtout man and his wife, with a ſmall ſucking child, to a gentleman of his acquaintance at Nevis, who uſed them well; but the unfortunate man, having been a conſiderable perſon in his native country, could not

ANOTHER great article of trade in Negroland and Guinea is ivory, or elephants teeth, which are got either by killing thoſe animals, or picked up in the woods. It is a trade, followed by all nations about the Gambia, for whoever kills an elephant has the liberty of ſelling him and his teeth; but thoſe traded for in that river are generally brought from the inland parts of the country, and many of them by the merchants. As to thoſe found in the woods, whether they belong to elephants that had been dead many years, or whether thoſe animals ſhed their teeth, as ſome have conjectured, Mr. Moore was not able to learn; but this is certain, that they find teeth without any

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not bear the thoughts of working as a ſlave. However, to bring him by gentle degrees to reliſh a ſtate of ſlavery, his maſter ſet him to look after his horſes, mules, and ſheep; but he had not been long in that ſtation, before he quarrelled with another of his maſter's negroes, and killed him with a knife; upon which he fled with his wife and child to the woods, where he erected a hut, reſolving to die rather than ſubmit. Being ſoon found out, and his hut ſurrounded with armed white men and negroes, he firſt of all butchered his wife and child, and then came out of his hut with the bloody reeking knife in his hand, offering it to his maſter, and ſaying, that as he had fairly bought and paid for him, he had a juſt right to his life. The maſter told him he muſt ſurrender himſelf, and be tried by the civil magiſtrate; whereupon he ſtruck at him with the knife, but was knocked down and ſecured. The next day he was tried, and condemned to be broke upon the wheel, and afterwards burnt alive; which ſentence was ſtrictly put in execution. When his arms, thighs, and legs were all broken to pieces with an iron crow, he did not ſo much as once cry oh! He then deſired a dram of rum, which was denied him; but a draught of water was offered him, which he refuſed to accept. They then flung him into a large and fierce fire, where he expired with little or no concern.—Now what puniſhment did not the captain deſerve, who ſtole the unhappy negro, and thereby occaſioned this tragical cataſtrophe?

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ſkull or bones fixed to them, which makes the conjecture not improbable. The largeſt tooth our author ever ſaw weighed a hundred and thirty pounds; and the larger they are, it ſeems, the more valuable by the pound, for one tooth that weighs a hundred pounds is worth more than three that weigh a hundred and forty. Many of the teeth are broken-pointed, which leſſens their value conſiderably; and ſome are white, and others yellow, but this makes no difference in the price.—One part of Guinea is called the tooth or ivory coaſt from the great numbers of teeth found there, or brought thither from the inland parts to be ſold to the European merchants and factors.

THE next branch of trade on the Gambia is bees-wax, which is capable of great improvement. The Mundingoes make bee-hives of ſtraw, of the ſame ſhape as ours in England; but they have a board at the bottom, with a hole in it for the bees to go in and out, and ſo are not placed on ſtands, but hung upon the boughs of trees. When they take the combs they ſmother the bees, and having ſqueezed out the honey, (of which they make a ſort of wine) they boil up the wax with water, and preſs it through hair-cloths into holes made in the ground for that purpoſe. They make cakes of it from twenty to a hundred and twenty pounds weight, which the purchaſers try by boring through them, thoſe which are cleareſt from dirt being accounted the beſt.

THERE is another branch of commerce, which, if properly purſued, might prove of vaſt advantage to the nation in general, namely, the gum-trade; for there is a great deal of gum ſenegal annually imported to England.

IT had been recommended to Mr. Moore, when in the company's ſervice at the factories on the

river Gambia, to inquire after any new ſort of goods that might be purchaſed, particularly gum, of which he accordingly procured about a ton at different times, and began to hope that this trade might be enlarged and made conſiderable by means of one Job Ben Solomon, a Pholey, whoſe hiſtory is ſo very remarkable, that though it may ſeem ſomewhat foreign to our purpoſe, we are perſuaded it cannot fail of being agreeable to the reader. This man was a ſon of the high-prieſt of Bundo in Foota, a place about a week's journey over land from the company's factory at Joar on the river Gambia. In the year 1731, as he was travelling acroſs the country with a ſervant and about twenty or thirty head of cattle, he was robbed and ſeized, together with his man, and both were ſold to captain Pyke, commander of the ſhip Arabella, who was then trading at Joar. By him he was carried to Maryland, and there ſold to a planter, with whom he lived about twelve months, at the end of which he had the good fortune to have a letter of his own writing in the Arabic tongue conveyed to England. This letter coming into the hands of Mr. Oglethorpe, he ſent it to Oxford to be tranſlated; which, when done, gave him ſo good an opinion of the man, that he directly ordered him to be bought from his maſter, he ſoon after ſetting out for Georgia. Before Mr. Oglethorpe returned from thence, Job came to England, where he was brought to the acquaintance of the learned Sir Hans Sloane, who found him a perfect maſter of the Arabic tongue, by his tranſlating ſeveral manuſcripts and inſcriptions upon medals. Sir Hans recommended Job to the duke of Montagu, who being pleaſed with the ſweetneſs of humour and mildneſs of temper, as well as genius and capacity of the man, introduced him to court, where h

he was graciouſly received by the royal family, and moſt of the nobility, from whom he received diſtinguiſhing marks of favour. He ſent letters from England to his father, and after having continued here about fourteen months, he had a ſtrong deſire to return to his native country. Upon his ſetting out from England he received a great many noble preſents from her late majeſty queen Caroline, the duke of Cumberland, the duke of Montagu, the earl of Pembroke, ſeveral ladies of quality, Mr. Holden, and the royal African company, who ordered their agents to treat him with the utmoſt reſpect.

HAVING embarked on board the Dolphin Snow, belonging to the company, Job arrived at James fort in Auguſt 1734, and ſome months afterwards proceeded up the river with Mr. Moore as high as Joar, the place where he was ſold for a ſlave. In the January following a meſſenger, whom Mr. Moore had ſent into Job's country, returned with advice that Job's father was dead, but that he had lived to receive the letters ſent by Job from England, which brought him the welcome news of his ſon's being redeemed from ſlavery, and of the regard paid to him in this country: that one of his wives was married to another man, but that as ſoon as he heard of Job's arrival he thought proper to abſcond; that ſince Job's abſence from this country there had been ſuch a dreadful war, that not ſo much as one cow was left in it, though when Job was there it was noted for numerous herds of large cattle. With this meſſenger came ſeveral of Job's old acquaintance, whom he was very glad to ſee; but, notwithſtanding the joy which the ſight of his friends gave him, he wept grievouſly for his father's death, and the calamities of his country. He forgave his wife, and the man

that had taken her; for, ſaid he to Mr. Moore, ſhe could not help thinking I was dead, being gone to a land from whence no Pholey ever yet returned; and therefore ſhe is not to be blamed, nor the man neither.

WHILST the above-mentioned meſſenger was gone his journey, Mr. Moore and Job went frequently together to ſeveral places about the country; and as Job every where ſpoke handſomely of the Engliſh, it took away a great deal of the horror of the Pholeys for the ſtate of ſlavery amongſt them; for before this they generally imagined, that all who were ſold for ſlaves were murdered, if not eaten, ſince none ever returned. His account of the Engliſh gave them alſo a great idea of the power of England, and a veneration for thoſe who traded amongſt them. He gave his country-people a great deal of writing paper, which is a very uſeful commodity amongſt them, and of which the company had preſented him with ſeveral reams. He uſed to pray frequently, and behaved himſelf with great mildneſs and affability to every one, ſo that he was very popular and well-beloved.

IT happened one evening, as Mr. Moore and Job were ſitting together under a tree, that ſix or ſeven of the very people came by, who had robbed and made a ſlave of him about three years before. Job, though at other times an even-tempered man, fell into a moſt terrible paſſion at the ſight of them, and was for killing them with his broad ſword and piſtols, which he always carried about him; but our author repreſenting to him the ill conſequences of ſuch a raſh attempt, he laid aſide the thoughts of it, and was perſuaded to ſit down and pretend not to know them, but aſk them queſtions about himſelf, to which they returned true anſwers. At laſt he inquired how

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the king their maſter did, and found that he was dead, having loſt his life by means of a piſtol that was among the goods for which he ſold Job to captain Pyke. This piſtol the king uſed to wear ſlung about his neck with a ſtring; and as they always carry their arms loaded, one day the piſtol accidentally went off, and the balls lodging in his throat he expired in a few minutes. On hearing this news Job was ſo much tranſported, that he fell on his knees, and gave thanks to Mahomet for cauſing this man to die by the very goods for which he ſold him into ſlavery; and then turning to Mr. Moore, "You ſee now, ſays he, God Almighty "was diſpleaſed at this man's making me a ſlave, "and therefore made him die by the very piſtol "for which he ſold me, yet I ought to forgive "him, becauſe if I had not been ſold, I ſhould "neither have known any thing of the Engliſh, "nor have had any of theſe uſeful and valuable "things I have brought over, nor have known "there was ſuch a place as England in the world, "nor ſuch noble, good, and generous people as "queen Caroline, prince William, the duke of "Montagu, the earl of Pembroke, Mr. Holden, "Mr. Oglethorpe, and the royal African com-"pany."

To bring this hiſtory to a concluſion: when Mr. Moore left Africa, which was in the year 1735, Job parted from him with tears in his eyes, and at the ſame time gave him letters for the duke of Montagu, the company, and ſeveral gentlemen in England, deſiring Mr. Moore to give his love and duty to them, and to acquaint them, that as he intended to learn to write the Engliſh tongue, he would, when he was maſter of it, ſend them longer epiſtles, and a full account of what ſhould happen to him hereafter. He likewiſe begged of

Mr. Moore, that as he had lived with him almoſt ever ſince his return to Africa, he would let his grace and the other gentlemen know what he had done, and that he was going to accompany Mr. Hull to the gum-foreſt, and to ſettle ſuch a good underſtanding between the company and his countrymen, that the Engliſh nation ſhould reap the benefit of the gum-trade; adding at laſt, that he would ſpend his days in endeavouring to do good for the Engliſh, by whom he had been redeemed from ſlavery, and from whom he had received ſuch innumerable favours.

THIS ſtory being of a ſingular nature, and relating to the commerce and intereſt of our country, we hope it will be thought at leaſt an excuſable digreſſion from our ſubject; to which we now return, and proceed to take a view of the remaining parts of Africa.

CHAP. IV.

Of ETHIOPIA, or ABYSSINIA, including NUBIA, and the Eaſtern coaſt of AFRICA.

ABYSSINIA, comprehending Nubia, is a large part of Africa, almoſt wholly ſituated within the torrid zone, having Egypt and the deſert of Barca on the north; the Red ſea and the country of Anian on the eaſt; the ſame country of Anian and unknown parts of Africa on the ſouth; and other unknown parts of Africa on the weſt.

NUBIA, which lies between Egypt and Abyſſinia, though intirely under the torrid zone, is in many places very fertile, particularly on the banks of the Nile, where the inhabitants, as in upper Egypt,

Egypt, raiſe the water up to the high banks, by art and labour. Hence it produces ſome fine fruits, with plenty of ſugar canes; but the natives are unacquainted with the art of making ſugar.

THE ancient and celebrated kingdom, or rather empire of Abyſſinia is ſometimes called Ethiopia Proper, and has been likewiſe much talked of under the title of the States of Preſter John *, tho', as ſome think, very abſurdly. This empire was formerly much more extenſive than it is at preſent, though even now it is a vaſt country, the ſeveral parts whereof are governed by proper viceroys, who have different titles. The extreme heat, to which the country is ſubject, is chiefly felt in the plains and valleys, whilſt the ridges of mountains, moſt of which are of a prodigious height, enjoy a

* This title ſeems to have been given to the monarchs of Abyſſinia on the following account. There was an ancient race of Chriſtian princes in Proper Tartary, who bore the title of Preſter or Preſbyter John, as it was corrupted by the Europeans, though chiefly owing to an epithet which one of the firſt of thoſe monarchs either took of Preſtigian, or was complimented with by his ſubjects, that word properly ſignifying apoſtolical or orthodox, but which in its carriage to Europe had been changed into Preſter John, on a ſuppoſition that he was a prieſt as well as king. The fame of this monarch was become ſo great in the time of John II. king of Portugal, that he ſent Peter Covillan to make inquiry after him in India; but as he could hear nothing of ſuch a prince there, and being informed there was a potent Chriſtian emperor in Africa, he made that country in his way home; where he was ſo kindly received by the then reigning emperor, that he took it for granted he had found out the monarch ſo much ſought after, though he could hear of nothing like the title of Preſter John. This point hath been ſince much controverted among the learned abroad, ſome affirming the Abyſſinian empire to be the real Preſter John's country, and others treating the notion as abſurd and chimerical: However, we ſhall not enter into the diſpute, as being a matter of more curioſity than moment.

delightful coolneſs; inſomuch that father Tellez aſſures us, there are ſome parts of the country where the ſummers are leſs ſultry than in Portugal. This difference of heat and cold indeed between the high and low lands is attended with ſuch thunder and lightnings as are terrible both to man and beaſt, and often do a great deal of miſchief. The rains, when they deſcend, do not fall in drops, as with us, but ſometimes pour down with ſuch vehemence, that they carry off trees, houſes, and even rocks before them, whilſt the rivers overflow and lay the country under water. The winds are ſometimes no leſs dreadful than the rains and thunder; and the country is ſubject to one in particular, which is rather a hurricane, and in their language is called ſengo, or ſerpent. This is often ſo violent as to overturn trees, houſes, and almoſt every thing in it's way, but it in ſome meaſure makes amends for this miſchief, by clearing the air of the lower grounds, which would otherwiſe ſtagnate and prove infectious, as they find by experience.

THE whole country is interſected, or rather covered with mountains, between which are ſuch dreadful precipices as one cannot behold without horror; but ſome of the mountains have large plains at the top, covered with trees and other verdure, and afford ſprings of excellent cool water; and others are well cultivated, though the acceſs to them is exceeding difficult and hazardous. The mountains of Amhara are of a vaſt height, particularly that called Amba Geſhen, which is rocky, and every way inacceſſible but by two narrow paths cut into the rock; but the top of it produces all that is neceſſary for life or delight. According to Tellez this mountain is ſhaped like a caſtle; the top of it is half a league wide, and the bottom about half a day's journey in circumference.

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—Amongſt the mountains of Gojame we are told of a vaſt hollow rock, oppoſite to which ſtands another ſo ſituated, that a word only whiſpered on the top is heard at a great diſtance, and the joint voices of ſeveral perſons ſpeaking at once ſound as loud as the ſhout of a numerous army. — The face of Nubia, as well as Abyſſinia, is very much overſpread with mountains.

THE churches in the mountains of Abyſſinia cut out of the ſolid rock are mentioned by ſome writers as a great curioſity. It is ſaid they are ten in number, and that an exact proportion is obſerved in the gates, windows, pillars, arches, and all other parts, ſo that the whole appears elegant and regular; and it is affirmed they were all perfected within the ſpace of four and twenty years. It is to be obſerved however, that the rocks, out of which theſe churches are ſo curiouſly hewn, are of a ſoft nature; and it is not unlikely that ſome of them had part of their form beforehand, ſince there are many rocks in this country of different figures, ſo exact that they ſeem to have been cut with a chiſſel. We are told that the workmen employed in this curious performance were ſent for from Egypt.

FOSSILS.

WE have obſerved that Abyſſinia and Nubia abound with mountains, and many of them contain vaſt treaſures of gold in their bowels, as appears by the duſt or grains of that metal, which are found here and there as big as a pea; but we do not learn that either gold or ſilver mines are wrought in thoſe kingdoms, the natives being naturally averſe to ſuch hard ſort of work, and perhaps thinking it would be folly to take pains to dig

up treaſures which might tempt the Turks to invade them. Inſtead of money, therefore, they make uſe of a kind of foſſil ſalt, to purchaſe from ſtrangers ſuch commodities as their country does not afford.

BUT perhaps no part of Ethiopia yields greater plenty of gold than the neighbouring empire of Monomotapa, from whence the Portuguſe have given the ſovereign of that country the title of the golden emperor. The natives dive to the bottom of their lakes and rivers, and bring up with them the mud and ſand, from which they afterwards ſeparate the precious metal. But in the kingdom of Sofala, which is dependent on and by ſome reckoned a part of the ſaid empire, the mines are ſo rich, that the inhabitants aſſert they yield annually above two millions of metigals, each metigal amounting to fourteen livres French money; that the ſhips from Zidem and other ports of Arabia carry off above two millions a year in time of peace; and that the Portugueſe governor of Moſambique, whoſe office laſts but three years, has three hundred thouſand crowns revenue in that time, beſides the ſoldiers pay, and a tribute paid to the king of Portugal. From this plenty of gold ſome have concluded Sofala to be the land of Ophir, to which Solomon ſent fleets from Ezion-geber, a port on the Red ſea, which returned once in three years, bringing home gold and other commodities to an immenſe value: but this is mere conjecture, and indeed the moſt learned authors can go no farther in a matter of ſuch uncertainty.*

IN

* Ophir has been ſought for almoſt in every part of the world, and yet remains a terra incognita; however, it does not

In Abyſſinia, beſides a great number of ſalt-pits which ſupply that country with much more than is neceſſary for home conſumption, there is on the confines of Dancala and Tigra, two adjacent kingdoms, a large plain of four days journey, one ſide thereof is incruſted all over with a pure white ſalt, and in ſuch quantity that ſome hundreds of camels, mules, and aſſes are conſtantly employed in carrying it to different parts of the neighbouring countries.—In ſome parts of Ethiopia there are whole mountains of ſulphur, beſides divers other foſſils, of which we have already given a ſufficient account in the courſe of this work.

VEGETABLES.

NUBIA affords not only very fine fruit, but variety of medicinal plants, roots and drugs, with others that are extremely obnoxious. One of the moſt remarkable productions of this laſt kind, is an herb not unlike our nettle, which grows in Nubia, and produces a ſeed of ſuch a poiſonous and deſtructive quality, that a tenth part of a grain kills a man in a quarter of an hour, and a whole grain in an inſtant. This deadly product is made a conſiderable branch, not only of their trade, but of the royal revenue, it being ſold by

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not ſeem probable that Sofala is the place, becauſe it is not diſtant enough from Ezion-geber, for a fleet to have ſpent three years in the voyage, though we ſhould allow the ſhips went to different ports for different parts of their cargo. Be this as it will, it was chiefly by the trade to Ophir that Solomon came to ſurpaſs all the kings of the earth in riches; for the very firſt voyage they made, they brought back four hundred and fifty talents of gold, excluſive of ſilver and all other valuable commodities; which alone amounts to near two millions and a half of our money, reckoning the talent of gold equivalent to five thouſand four hundred and twenty five pounds ſterling.

the retailer for a hundred ducats an ounce, beſides which the buyer muſt pay the like ſum to the king, and take a ſolemn oath not to make uſe of it within his dominions: and for this reaſon it is death for any private perſon to ſell it without the king's permiſſion.

THE trees of Abyſſinia are crowned with a conſtant verdure, and though the inhabitants have a ſcarcity of fruit, this is ſaid to be rather owing to their negligence; than to any fault of the ſoil, which is capable of producing as great a plenty and variety of them, as any country in Africa. They cultivate the black grape, peach, ſugar-cane, ſour pomegranate, ſome oranges and citrons, and ſeveral kinds of figs; among others, one called enſette, grows to a prodigious ſize. During the greateſt part of the year, the banks of the river are adorned with lillies, jonquils, and a prodigious number of flowers unknown in Europe.

SOME writers tell us incredible ſtories of the plants of Abyſſinia; and particularly Tellez mentions one called Amagmagda, which has the virtue of curing broken and ſhattered bones in a very ſhort time. He likewiſe mentions the aſſazoe, which charms and lays ſerpents and venomous creatures to ſleep, and whoſe root is a certain antidote againſt the moſt deadly bite of any poiſonous animal. The Indian fig-tree grows plentifully in this country, whoſe fruit is excellent, and is ſuppoſed by Ludolphus to be the dudam of Moſes, in our verſion tranſlated mandrakes, which Rachel is ſaid to have exchanged with her rival ſiſter for a night's lodging with her huſband.

THERE is a ſmall tree or rather ſhrub, growing to the height of three or four feet, with little narrow leaves, and bearing a fruit reſembling the ſeeds of coriander. Theſe berries when ripe, and dried in the ſun, ſhrink like Eaſt-India pepper,

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turn black and hard, and differ little from it in taſte, but are not ſo hot, and therefore more agreeable. This ſhrub grows plentifully in many parts both of upper and lower Ethiopia.

In the ſame country they have a tree called likonde or alikonde, which delights in a dry ſoil, and frequently grows to the thickneſs of eight, ten, or twelve fathoms in the body; but the root never goes above a foot under ground, ſo that they are eaſily blown down. It's fruit reſembles that of the palm-tree, but is ſomewhat longer, having a white kernel within it; but the natives never eat it except in time of famine or great ſcarcity, it being reckoned a dangerous food, cauſing a ſickneſs which ſometimes proves mortal. Of the inner rind they make a ſort of cloth, and canoes or boats of the body of the tree.

ANIMALS.

Several ancient authors take notice of a fierce kind of wild bulls that are found in Ethiopia, much larger than our tame ones, and which prey upon other animals. Agatharchides, who lived near two hundred years before Chriſt, is the firſt who mentions and deſcribes this voracious bull, and Diodorus Siculus, Pliny, and Ælian ſeem all to have copied his deſcription. "There are very "fierce wild bulls in Ethiopia, (ſays Pliny) larger "than tame ones, and ſwifter than any other "animal, of a deep yellow colour, with blue eyes, "and their hair inverted, with a mouth that opens "to their ears; and moveable horns; their ſkin "is as hard as a flint, and invulnerable; and they "hunt down all other wild beaſts." Diodorus adds, that his eyes ſhine in the night; that after he has killed other beaſts he devours them; and that when he attacks herds of cattle, he is neither terrified

terrified by the herdſmen nor the number of their dogs. Ludolphus, in his hiſtory of Ethiopia, affirms, that there are bulls in that country of an uncommon ſize, twice as large as thoſe in Hungary and Ruſſia; and the letters of the Jeſuits frequently mention the largeneſs of the Abyſſinian oxen. Father Bernier, in his account of the great mogul's country, tells us, that among ſeveral preſents which two Ethiopian ambaſſadors preſented to Aurengzeb, there was a prodigious large horn of a bull, full of civet, which he meaſured, and found the baſis or thick end ſix inches in diameter.

FROM theſe and other authors it appears (ſays Sir Hans Sloane in the Philoſophical Ttranſactions) that there is in Ethiopia, and probably in the midland parts of Africa, where travellers ſeldom come, a very large animal of the ox kind, at leaſt twice as big as our bulls or oxen, with horns proportionably large, but otherwiſe differing from them in ſeveral reſpects. The accounts the antients give of this creature are not perhaps without ſome fabulous additions; and therefore it were to be wiſhed the modern writers who mention it had given us a ſatisfactory deſcription of it, which none of them have done; unleſs we ſuppoſe it to be the ſame with the ſukatorio or ſukotyro, which Nieuhoff deſcribes to be of the ſize of a large ox, with a ſnout like a hog, two long rough ears, and a thick buſhy tail: it's eyes are placed upright in the head, quite different from other animals; and on the ſide of the head, near the eyes, ſtand two long horns, or rather teeth, not quite ſo thick as thoſe of the elephant.

THE camelopardal is an animal found in ſome parts of Ethiopia, being ſo called as partaking both of the camel and the panther. It's legs are ſo long that a man may ſtand upright under it's belly, and it's

it's neck is long in proportion, in order to reach the ground to graze; ſo that when the creature walks with it's neck erect, the head appears a great height above it's body. It has a ſlender tail, two little horns, a ſmall mouth, but a very long tongue, and it's two fore legs are longer than the hinder. The beaſt loves ſolitude, keeping continually in the woods; and, if taken young, is exceeding tractable. It's fleſh is good meat, and it's ſkin, which is ſpotted like a panther, is very valuable.

THE civet-cat is one of the moſt remarkable animals of Ethiopia. The other quadrupeds found in this part of Africa are lions, tygers, leopards, panthers, elks, porcupines, and many more, which are either ſo well known as to require no deſcription, or have been taken notice of as we met with them in other countries.

THOSE who have viſited Abyſſinia mention a very extraordinary animal, which is probably only one of the many ſpecies of monkies. This they repreſent as no bigger than a cat, but as having the face of a man, with a mournful voice. It is ſaid to live upon the trees, where it is brought forth and dies; but is ſo very wild, that it is impoſſible to tame it; for when any of them have been caught, in order to bring them up, all the care that can be taken of them will not prevent their pining away till they die.

IN Abyſſinia are a great variety of the feathered kind, both wild and tame, and many of thoſe found in Europe are here larger and more beautiful than ours, particularly the partridges, which are ſaid to be as large as our capons. Of theſe they have ſeveral ſpecies, as they have alſo of pigeons and turtle doves. The cardinal received it's name from the Portugueſe, on account of the beautiful redneſs of it's feathers, except thoſe on it's breaſt,

breaſt, which reſemble the fineſt black velvet. There is here alſo the white nightingale, which is a very beautiful bird, that has a tail two ſpans in length.

AMONG the obnoxious animals, are the ſerpents and inſects; many of the former are ſo extremely venomous, that their bite is attended with almoſt inſtant death, if a remedy be not immediately applied. But no reptiles are capable of doing a hundredth part of the miſchief produced by the locuſts, which ſometimes appear in ſuch thick clouds as to eclipſe the light of the ſun, and to lay whole provinces deſolate.

AMONG the amphibious animals, the crocodile and the hippopotamus, or river horſe, are moſt deſtructive; but both theſe we have already deſcribed, in treating of the animals of Egypt.

Of the Inhabitants of NUBIA, and the ABYSSINIANS.

THE inhabitants of Nubia are ſwarthy and ſmall of ſtature. Thoſe of ſuperior rank, in the heart of the country, are clothed in a veſt, without ſleeves, but the common people only wrap a piece of linen cloth about them, and the children go quite naked. Perſons of quality, however, wear fine looſe and long robes of ſilk or cotton; and thoſe of the women reach to the ground; the laſt alſo adorn their hair with rings and other ornaments of gold, ſilver, and braſs, but have nothing on their legs or feet, except ſandals.

THE generality of the inhabitants are Mahometans, but are ſaid to have neither modeſty, civility, nor religion. Mr. Norden, who proceeded up the Nile a conſiderable way into Nubia, found them baſe, treacherous, mean, and avaricious, eſpecially ſome

ſome of the great, who ſcruple neither threats nor intreaties to obtain the treaſures they dare not plunder by open violence. They fight to greater advantage on horſeback than on foot, for they are very expert horſemen; but as they poiſon their weapons, the Turks ſeldom care to attack them.

A FRENCH phyſician named Poncet, who paſſed through this country, in his way to Abyſſinia, ſays, they are ſubject to a prince, who wears a long robe, embroidered with gold and ſilver, faſtened with a girdle of the fineſt cotton. On his head he has a turban of the ſame; but never appears in public, without having his face veiled with ſilk gauze of various colours. Thoſe ſtrangers who are admitted to pay their homage to him, are obliged to pull off their ſhoes, and kneeling, to kiſs the ground two or three times; nor do his ſubjects ever appear before him without being barefooted.

THE Abyſſinians are generally tall and well ſhaped; their complexion may be termed black, but ſome are inclined to the tawny and to a reddiſh brown. Among them the olive is eſteemed the fineſt complexion; and next to that, the jet black. They have regular and agreeable features, and have neither thick lips, nor flat noſes; and their eyes are black, briſk, and lively. They are naturally ſtrong and healthy, and from their temperance in eating live to a good old age. Moſt of them are ſo nimble and active, as to climb the talleſt tree and ſteepeſt rocks, with ſurpriſing eaſe and agility. The women greatly excel thoſe in Europe in ſtrength and ſprightlineſs; they breed eaſily, are delivered without help, and can take care both of the child and themſelves, without the aſſiſtance of a nurſe. This indeed is common to

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all the women in hot climates, except where they are weakened by a too ſedentary life.

THE men of quality wear a fine long veſt, either of ſilk or cotton, tied about their waiſt with a rich ſcarf; that of the citizens is much the ſame, but is only of cotton, they not being allowed to wear ſilk; nor is their cotton of the ſame fineneſs. The common people have only a pair of cotton drawers, and a kind of ſcarf, with which they looſely cover the reſt of their bodies. As to the women, they are allowed to appear as fine as their circumſtances will admit, and therefore thoſe of high rank uſually dreſs in the richeſt ſilks and brocades; their upper garments are wide and full, not unlike ſurplices. Their heads and hair are adorned an hundred different ways, and they have rich pendants in their ears; beſides, they ſpare no expence in the ornaments of their necks, which conſiſt of chains and jewels. Indeed both the men and women are extremely curious in the management of their hair, on which they laviſh a great deal of butter, to render it ſmooth and ſhining. A vanity the more excuſable, as none but the emperor is allowed to wear any covering for the head. Their dreſs is chiefly accommodated to the climate, and therefore, during the heat of ſummer, their cloaths hang as looſe as poſſible; but, in the cooler ſeaſons, they bring them cloſer to their bodies; and the rich then appear in handſome veſts, open only to the waiſt, and cloſed with ſmall buttons. They have ſmall collars, and very long and ſtreight ſleeves, gathered at the wriſts.

THEY are not ſo temperate in their drinking as in their food, eſpecially at their feaſts. They have excellent mead, honey being very plentiful; ſome other liquors made of various fruits, and a kind of ale made of barley. Both the men and women

women are ſaid to be witty and ingenious, extremely inquiſitive, and fond of learning. They have neither inns, taverns, nor caravanſeras for the entertainment of ſtrangers: the ſpirit of hoſpitality, which prevails amongſt them, rendering theſe unneceſſary: for, if a traveller ſtays longer in a village, or camp, than three hours, the whole community are ready to lodge and furniſh him with proper neceſſaries for himſelf, his ſervants, and cattle, at the public expence. He need only enter the firſt hut or tent he likes, and reveal his wants to the maſter of it, who immediately goes and informs the chief perſon of the place; upon which an ox is ordered to be killed, and ſo much of it is ſent to him as will be ſufficient for him and his company, with a proper quantity of bread, liquor, and conveniencies for lodging.

THE people here have no idea of money, but, in purchaſing what they want, exchange one commodity for another. Salt, indeed, may be conſidered as a kind of ſpecie, it being the moſt common article of trade; and by this they rate the value of every thing elſe.

THEY forbid marriage between perſons in the third and even fourth degree of conſanguinity, and eſteem it unlawful to have more wives than one at a time; yet thoſe who diſobey this law, and have ſeveral, ſuffer only by being deprived of the benefit of the holy communion, and live with them without moleſtation. They admit of divorces, not only on a breach of conjugal fidelity, but for want of children, diſagreement, bodily infirmities, and the like; in which caſe the women have the ſame privilege of abrogating the marriage contract with the men. Hence divorces among thoſe of high rank are very frequent. But, with reſpect to the breach of fidelity on either ſide, they ſometimes compromiſe

compromiſe the affair; for, as both the huſband and wife have ſeparate lands and effects, they can make what is eſteemed a compenſation: but, when this cannot be agreed upon, the women are generally moſt ſeverely puniſhed; ſhe is condemned to loſe all her goods; to leave her huſband's houſe in a mean dreſs; and to take with her a ſewing needle, by which ſhe may earn her livelihood; and ſometimes ſhe is ſentenced to be cloſe ſhaved, except a ſingle lock on the foretop. But the huſband may take her again; or, if he does not, they may both marry. If the huſband be the offender, both he, and the partner in his guilt, are liable to be puniſhed; but they are generally both fined, and what is taken from them, given to the wife.

THE Abyſſinian empire appears to have been, from it's firſt foundation, intirely deſpotic, both with reſpect to civil and religious affairs. Theſe princes boaſt their being deſcended from Menilekech, the ſon of Solomon, king of Iſrael, by the queen of Sheba. They pretend that this princeſs reigned twenty-five years after her return from Judea, and was ſucceeded by this ſon, from whom deſcended a ſeries of princes, in a direct line to the year 960, when the crown paſſed into another family, but was afterwards reſtored to it again. Hence the emperor has the pompous titles of The Beloved of God, Son of the Pillar of Sion, Kinſman to the race of Judah, Son of David and Solomon, and Emperor of the Great and High Ethiopia, &c. He alſo bears in his arms a lion holding a croſs, with the motto in the Ethiopic tongue, The lion of the tribe of Judah is victorious.

THOSE who are admitted to the emperor's preſence, fall proſtrate before him, and kiſs the earth as they approach his perſon: even in his abſence, they never hear his name mentioned without bowing

ing low, and touching the ground with their hand. He is not only accompanied by his own houſhold and guards, which are very numerous, but by all the grandees and officers of the empire, who ſtrive to outvie each other in the greatneſs and ſplendor of their retinue, the richneſs of their dreſs, and the magnificence of their pavilions. As he chiefly lives in tents, his camp takes up a large ſpace of ground, and makes a very ſplendid appearance; to which the regular diſpoſition of the ſtreets, and the variety of tents, ſtreamers, and other ornaments, do not a little contribute; the whole appearing like a vaſt open and regular city, in whoſe center, or in ſome eminent part of it, ſtands the emperor's pavilion, which exceeds all the reſt in height, bulk, and grandeur. Next to it are thoſe of the empreſs and royal family, and then thoſe of the officers of the court; all appearing with a proportionable, though inferior luſtre. To theſe may be added large and ſtately pavilions, that ſerve as churches, which are adorned, both within and without, at a great expence. It has alſo markets, courts of juſtice, and places where young perſons of rank perform a variety of exerciſes on horſeback.

THE Abyſſinians maintain that they were converted to Chriſtianity by the eunuch or prime miniſter of their queen Candace, who, after his converſion by Philip, they ſay, returned into Ethiopia, and converted his queen. But the diſcipline of the church was ſettled in the year 335 by Frumentius, biſhop of Axuma, who was ſent into Ethiopia by Athanaſius. The Abyſſinians, however, retain many of the Jewiſh ceremonies; they circumciſe not only male, but female infants; which laſt is done by cutting off a ſmall piece of ſkin from the clytoris. They abſtain from blood, things

things ſtrangled, ſwine's fleſh, and other animals prohibited by the Moſaic law. They uſe purifications and waſhings after certain defilements, keep the ſeventh-day ſabbath, and oblige a man, if his elder brother dies without male iſſue, to marry his widow. Their clergy are allowed to marry, and the divine ſervice conſiſts of a ſet of prayers, pſalms, and hymns, ſuitable to the ſeaſons; and for the moſt part performed with great decency and devotion. They baptize infants by a three-fold immerſion, after which they anoint the whole body with the holy chriſm, and afterwards adminiſter the holy communion to the child, in both kinds.

THEY receive the ſame canonical books of the Old and New Teſtament that we do; the former being tranſlated from the Septuagint, and the latter from the Greek original. They have alſo the apoſtolical conſtitutions, which, in ſeveral reſpects, differs from the work we have under that title, and which they believe to be of divine authority. They have alſo the Nicene creed, but not that of the apoſtles.

THE Abyſſinians have few manufactures among them, and though they are chiefly dreſſed in cotton and linen, and their country is as proper for producing them as any in Africa, they raiſe no more than will ſerve their preſent wants; and the leſs of either ſerves them as they uſe none either at their tables or for their beds. The Jews are ſaid to be their only weavers; and in moſt parts of the empire they are their only ſmiths, and work in all kinds of metal. Their potters and makers of horn trumpets, and drinking-cups, are in the higheſt requeſt; and with other inferior artiſts, are incorporated into tribes or companies, and have

their

their ſeveral quarters, the children commonly following the buſineſs of their parents. Gold and ſilver ſmiths, jewellers, and other artificers of the like kind are intirely unknown there, except by ſome of their works being brought by way of exchange; and theſe are only to be found among the great and opulent. The ſame may be ſaid of their carpets, velvets, brocades, ſilks, tapeſtry, and other valuable ſtuffs, which are all brought hither by the Turks, by the way of the Red ſea, and exchanged for fine horſes, gold duſt and emeralds. The Arabians, Armenians, and Jews are the common brokers between them and the Abyſſinians, who ſeldom or never travel out of their own country; and indeed are not ſuffered to do ſo by the Turks, who, being poſſeſſed of the ſea-ports on the Red ſea, inrich themſelves by this monopoly, and take great care to prevent any trade being opened into the country, by any other nation. Beſides the above articles of commerce, the Turks bring them ſeveral kinds of ſpices; and, among the reſt, pepper, in very ſmall quantities, which they keep up at ſo high a price, that none but the richeſt of the Abyſſinians can purchaſe this or any other ſpice. In return for theſe ſpices, the Abyſſinians bring them honey, wax, ivory, ſkins, furs, and leather in great quanties; for which they are abliged to take what the brokers pleaſe to give them.

CHAP.

CHAP V.

Of CONGO, including the kingdoms of CONGO proper, BENGUELA, and LOANGO.

THESE countries generally included by geographers, under the general name of Congo, extend about twelve hundred miles in length from north to ſouth, along the weſtern coaſt of Africa; but in no part reach two hundred miles from the ſea within land. The climate of Benguela is extremely bad for ſtrangers; and particularly the Europeans ſettled there, are ſaid to look as if taken out of their graves. The climate of Congo Proper is, however, extremely temperate, conſidering it's being ſituated very near the equinoctial. The winter begins in March, when the ſun enters the northern ſigns; and the ſummer in September, when the ſun enters the ſouthern ſigns; and in this ſeaſon it never rains; but during five months of the winter, that is in April, May, June, July, and Auguſt, they have but few fair days; the rain pouring down with prodigious force, the rivers overflow their banks, and lay all the low lands under water. In winter, the winds blow through all theſe regions from north to north-weſt, and from the north to the north-eaſt, driving the clouds towards the mountains with great violence; where being gathered and compreſſed, they are ſeen on the tops of thoſe eminences, and ſoon after diſcharge themſelves in ſhowers. But during their ſummer, the winds which blow from the ſouth to the ſouth-eaſt, clear the ſouthern ſkies, by driving the rain into the northern regions.

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Theſe winds cool the air, the heat of which would otherwiſe be inſupportable. But no ſnow ever falls in theſe countries, nor is it ever ſeen on the tops of the mountains, nor is ice in winter ever known.

In the kingdom of Congo are every year two harveſts; for they begin to ſow in January and reap in April; the ſecond time is in September, and they reap what is then ſowed, in December. In the cultivation of the earth, they uſe neither plough nor ſpade; for the clouds no ſooner begin to afford the leaſt moiſture, than the women ſet fire to the herbs and roots; and, after the firſt heavy ſhower has fallen, proceed to turn up the ground with a ſlight hoe, fixed to a handle about two ſpans long, cutting into the earth with one hand, while, with the other, they ſcatter the ſeed, which they carry in a bag by their ſides. While thus employed, they have generally one or more children upon their backs, to prevent their being hurt by the inſects, which, upon this occaſion, come out of the earth in great numbers.

FOSSILS.

In Angola are mines of ſalt, from which they dig it out in pieces above a yard long, and as clear as cryſtal. It is as white as our beſt ſalt, and has ſuch a peculiar flavour, that a piece of it, put into the pot, gives, both the liquor and meat, a pleaſant ſeaſoning.

In many places in the mountains of Congo, are quarries of excellent ſtone, of various kinds; from whence whole columns of a prodigious ſize, with their capitals and baſes, may be dug intire. There are even ſaid to be whole mountains of jaſper, porphyry, and marble of various colours, re-

ſembling thoſe called the marbles of Ethiopia, Numidia, and Africa. There is alſo a ſtone, ſpeckled with grains and ſtreaks, ſome of which contain beautiful hyacinths; for the ſtreaks which are diſpoſed like veins, through the body of the marble, may be picked out, like the kernels of a pomegranate, when they fall into grains and little pieces of perfect hyacinths. Beautiful columns may be formed of the whole maſs, which is very ſparkling. There are other ſtones, which likewiſe ſeem inlaid with copper and other metals; theſe likewiſe appear very beautiful, and take a fine poliſh.

THE mountains of Congo are likewiſe ſaid to abound with gold, but this is denied by ſome writers; it is, however, allowed that there are mines of ſilver and excellent copper, and alſo ſome of iron, which are wrought; the uſefulneſs of that metal in making knives, arms, inſtruments of agriculture, and other kinds of utenſils, being well known to the inhabitants. Of the other minerals and foſſils of this country we have no account, it being little known to the Europeans, except to the Portugueſe.

VEGETABLES.

THERE are ſeveral kinds of grain different from ours; one, which the inhabitants call luco, nearly reſembles muſtard-ſeed, but is ſomewhat bigger. It is ground with hand-mills, yields a very white meal, and makes fine well-taſted bread, not at all inferior to that made of wheat. There is alſo a kind of millet called the corn of Congo, and another ſort called Portugueſe corn. They have various ſorts of pulſe, for the moſt part unknown in Europe; among which is a ſort not unlike rice, but grows upon a ſhrub, and will laſt two or three years,

years, yielding fruit in great abundance, every ſix months. Among many other ſorts of pulſe are the mandois, which grow three or four together under ground, like vetches, and are about the thickneſs of an ordinary olive; from theſe they extract milk like that drawn from almonds. There is another ſort of ground pulſe called incube, which is of the ſize and ſhape of a muſket-ball, and is very wholeſome and well-taſted.

THEY make bread of the root of a plant, called by the natives mandjaca, reduced to meal. This plant is of various ſorts, which differ in the roots, colour, and quality. The leaves reſemble thoſe of the oak, and are of a deep green, with many veins and prickles. The ſtem ſhoots upright ten or twelve feet high, ſpreading into many branches; but the wood is weak like that of the willow. In cultivating this plant, they dig up the earth, beat it ſmall, and throw it into heaps; then lopping off twigs, or taking ſlips about a foot long, and an inch thick, ſet two or three in each heap, with the ends ſticking out four or five inches above the earth. Theſe inſtantly take root, and, in about a twelve month's time, grow above twelve feet high, with many branches, and the body as thick as a man's thigh. To make the root grow large, they keep the ground clean by weeding it, and when it is come to it's perfect maturity, cut down the ſtem cloſe to the earth. The root being afterwards dug up, and the outſide taken off, they reduce it to flour, by grinding it in a mill made like the wheel of a waggon. The fellies of the wheel are a ſpan broad, and the bottom covered with copper, ſet with ſharp points, in the manner of a grater; and underneath is a trough, into which the meal falls. The perſon who holds the root to the wheel is attended by ſeveral little boys, and there are ſlaves

to take the ground meal out of the trough, and dry it in copper pans over the fire. Many houſes are built for this work, that are above a hundred feet long, and thirty or forty broad, with ten furnaces on each ſide. Every huſbandman may make as much meal as he thinks fit; and, if he has a houſe with twenty furnaces, uſually employs fifty or ſixty ſlaves, in weeding, hoeing, grinding, and drying.

THERE are, in this country, trees of an amazing ſize, the chief of which is called by the natives enſada, and in ſome reſpects reſembles the banian tree, which we have already deſcribed in treating of India; but in others it ſeems very different. It commonly ſprings up with one thick body, to a great height; and at the top ſhoots forth many branches, from which deſcend ſmall, yelloviſh ſtrings, which, on their reaching the ground, take root, and ſpring up again like new plants; and, increaſing in a little time to a large bulk, from thence fall new pendulums, which taking root again, ſpring up as before; ſo that a ſingle tree will ſometimes extend it's boughs above a thouſand paces, forming a wood, large enough for ſeveral thouſand men to ſhelter themſelves under the branches, which grow ſo very cloſe, that the ſunbeams cannot penetrate them. The leaves of the young boughs reſemble thoſe of the quince-tree, they being of a whitiſh green, and woolly. The fruit, which is red, both within and without, grows between the leaves of the young branches, like a common fig. Under it's outermoſt bark they find a ſubſtance, which being beaten, cleanſed and drawn out in length, the common people make into a kind of cloth.

THE mirrone nearly reſembles the former, the boughs ſending a number of roots to the ground; but

but the leaves are like thoſe of the orange-tree. This is uſually planted near the dwellings of the inhabitants.

AMONG the fruit-trees, are citrons, lemons, oranges, guajavas and a great variety of others. There are likewiſe many that have medicinal virtues; but the moſt ſurpriſing of them all is the mignamigna, which is ſaid to produce poiſon in one part, and it's antidote in another; for, if any perſon be poiſoned, by the fruit, which reſembles a ſmall lemon, he will then be cured by the leaves; and, if he be poiſoned by the leaves, he muſt have recourſe either to the fruit, or the wood.

ANIMALS.

AMONG the animals are the elephant, the rhiñoceros, red buffalo, zebra, elks, lions, tygers, leopards, wild boars, bears, wolves, foxes, very large wild cats, catamountains, civet-cats, apes, baboons, cows, ſheep, goats of ſeveral kinds, fallow-deer, roebucks, hares, and rabbits.

AMONG the animals the dante ſeems peculiar to this country. It is ſhaped and coloured much like a bull, ſome being black, others grey, and others brown; but it's horns, which are blackiſh, are like thoſe of a he-goat, but very bright and ſhining; and the natives form them into a great variety of very pretty baubles; they alſo make uſe of the raw hide, dried, to cover their ſhields; it being ſo tough that no dart, or arrow, can penetrate through it. This animal is ſaid to be exceeding ſwift of foot; and, when wounded, will follow the ſmoke or ſcent of gunpowder with ſuch fury, that the hunters have no other way to avoid it, than by climbing a tree with all poſſible diſpatch; when the wounded dante, finding his enemies out of his

reach, ſtays at the foot of the tree, till a ſecond or third ſhot has laid him dead. Their fleſh is eſteemed delicate food; and both the natives and the wild beaſts make continual war upon them: but nature has taught them to guard againſt the latter, by going in large droves, which, on their being attacked, form themſelves into a ring, with their horns outward, with which they defend themſelves with ſurpriſing vigour and agility.

ANOTHER extraordinary animal is called the nioſſi, and is of the bigneſs of a cat: it is of an aſh-colour, and has two ſmall horns on it's head. This is ſaid to be the moſt fearful creature that lives, it being ever in motion, and ſtarting or running at the leaſt noiſe or breath of air. It is ſaid, that, when drinking, it ſwallows a ſingle gulp, it then runs away as if purſued, and with the ſame fear returns till it has quenched it's thirſt. It does the ſame when browzing on the graſs. It's fleſh has an exquiſite taſte, and the natives prefer it's ſkin to that of any other creature, to make ſtrings of for their bows.

IN treating of India, we deſcribed an animal of the ape kind called oranoutang, as approaching nearly to the human race, in it's ſtature, manner of walking, ſhape, and ſagacity. We ſhall now treat of the chimpanzee or pigmy, which ſeems nearly of the ſame ſpecies in every thing but it's ſize. In the year 1738 (if we are rightly informed) Captain Flower brought over a female pigmy from Angola, which was two feet four inches high, had a face like a man, and was pretty fair, except on the chin, where a few ſtraggling hairs appeared. It's noſe was ſmall and like that of an ape, it's mouth about two inches and a half wide, and it's teeth ſhaped like human teeth, but neither very white nor ſound. The hair on it's head was

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an inch or more in length, and it's back parts were pretty hairy; but on it's breaſt and belly the hair was much thinner. It's feet were intirely bare on the inſide, as were alſo the hands both on the inſide and outſide.

THIS creature walked erect, was extremely fond of perſons it was uſed to, and even knew how to behave with good manners at the tea-table. It would fetch it's little chair, and ſit down as naturally as any of the company; and, if the tea were too hot, would pour it into the ſaucer to cool; with abundance of ſuch ſeemingly rational actions, which were diverting and ſurpriſing to the ſpectators. It's food was chiefly potatoes, bread, milk, nuts, apples, and raw onions, which laſt it greedily devoured, ſhewing an averſion to all kinds of fleſh, except now and then a bit of rabbit or chicken. It lived in England about ſix months, and, being opened after it's death, it was found to have died of a confirmed jaundice.

THE chimpanzee, diſſected many years ago by Dr. Tyſon, was alſo brought from Angola, and meaſured twenty-ſix inches from the top of the head to the heel. The thickeſt part of it's body was ſixteen inches round, and the length of the arm was ſeventeen inches from the ſhoulder to the end of the fingers. The face of this creature more nearly reſembled that of a man, than the face of an ape or a monkey does; and it's head was as big as either of theirs; but the noſe was much alike in both. The ears, for ſize, colour, and ſtructure, were intirely like thoſe of a man, but it had no eye-brows, though hair grew on the eye-lids. It's breaſt was ſmall, and not protuberant; but the two nipples, which were very apparent, were exactly ſituated as they are in men. It had hair in the arm-pits; and, all behind from the head

downwards, the hair was ſo thick, as almoſt to prevent the ſkin from being ſeen; but, in all parts before, it was much thinner. The navel of the chimpanzee is very viſible in the exact place, and is in all reſpects the ſame as in man: but the palms of it's hands, and the ſoles of it's feet, are always of an equal length, and longer in proportion than thoſe of men. It's toes are as long as it's fingers, the middlemoſt toe being longer than the reſt; and the great toe, like the thumb, is ſet off at a diſtance from the others.

SEVERAL authors have ſaid, that, in the ſea of Angola, and in many other places, is a fiſh eight ſpans in length, with the head oval, and the face reſembling that of a man. It has an high forehead, ſmall eyes, a flat noſe, and large mouth; but it has neither chin nor ears. It has two arms, which are ſhort, and without elbows, with hands or paws, to each of which are four long fingers, which are not very flexible, connected by a membrane like that of the foot of a gooſe. Their ſex is diſtinguiſhable by the parts of generation. The females have breaſts to ſuckle their offspring, the upper part of their body reſembling that of the human ſpecies, and the lower part that of a fiſh. Their ſkin is of a browniſh-grey colour, and their inteſtines reſemble thoſe of a hog. Their fleſh is as fat as pork, particularly that of the upper parts of their bodies; and this is a favourite diſh with the natives on ſhore, who broil it. This kind of mermaid makes a lamentable cry, when drawn out of the water. We are told there is a bone in the head that divides the brain, which the Portugueſe powder, and ſay it is of great ſervice in the ſtone and gravel. Accounts of the catching of theſe mermen or mermaids, in Europe, are delivered by Wormius,

Wormius, Guicciardino, Mexia, Seybold, Eraſmus Franciſcus, and others.

In theſe and the neighbouring kingdoms, are a vaſt variety of land and ſea fowl. Among the latter, are a great number of oſtriches of a ſurpriſing ſize. Their feathers, mixed with thoſe of the peacocks, which are here no leſs numerous, and extremely beautiful, are not only made into very ſplendid umbrellas, but into ſtandards and enſigns. The king of Angola is ſaid to keep great numbers of the latter, in a wood ſurrounded with high walls; and to ſuffer none in his dominions to breed or keep them, on account of his uſing the feathers in his enſigns.

There are here a great variety of parrots, diſtinguiſhed by their different ſizes and colours; particularly a ſmall bird of the parrot kind, little bigger than a ſparrow, but of a fine ſhape, and the moſt delightful colours. But the moſt eſteemed are the ſinging birds, which are ſomewhat larger than the canary bird, and of different colours; ſome being all over green, others red, and ſome all white; others grey, dun, or black; theſe laſt have the ſweeteſt note.

With reſpect to reptiles, the country is infeſted with a variety of ſerpents, ſome of which are repreſented as of an enormous ſize. Thus we are told in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, that, in the kingdom of Congo, there are ſerpents twenty-five feet long, that will ſwallow a whole ſheep at once. They are killed as they lie baſking themſelves in the ſun; and, after cutting off their heads and tails, and taking out their entrails, the natives eat them, and find them as fat as hogs. There are alſo rattle-ſnakes, tree-ſerpents, vipers, and many reptiles of others kinds, particularly ſcorpions.

BUILDINGS.

THE houſes of the common people, like thoſe in Guinea, are generally no better than round huts, with no windows, nor any light but from the doors, which are uſually ſo low, that the ſhorteſt man muſt ſtoop to enter them. The houſes of the city of St. Salvadore, and ſome other of their towns, are, however, ſomewhat higher, better thatched, and white-waſhed both within and without: theſe are divided into apartments, the chief of which have their floors matted. Thoſe belonging to perſons of rank are ſtill more capacious, and have a kind of hall to receive their viſitors in, with diſtinct apartments for their wives, ſervants, and ſlaves, ſtanding like ſo many huts, either adjoining to each other, or incloſed by a wall. The houſes of the Portugueſe are commonly built of brick and mortar after the European manner, and are, for the moſt part, pretty well furniſhed; but they have never been able to induce the Congoeſe to imitate them in building.

THE furniture of the natives chiefly conſiſts of a few ill-contrived inſtruments of agriculture; a hatchet to fell timber; a cutlaſs, which they uſually carry about them when travelling or going to war; a few calabaſhes, in which they ſtore their proviſions; and their kitchen furniture, conſiſting of a pot, a kettle, a ladle, a few earthen platters, a hand-mill to grind their corn, &c. Their beſt bedding is a large coarſe ſackcloth, filled with ſtraw, leaves, or the like, with a ſlight covering, and a block of wood for a pillow. The princes and great lords endeavour to imitate the Portugueſe in the richneſs of their furniture; but all

all their finery generally conſiſts in having their floors neatly matted, or covered with a fine carpet, and their mud walls hung with tapeſtry. Indeed the palaces of ſome of the chief princes and viceroys are adorned with large and ſplendid umbrellas, pictures, looking-glaſſes, handſome couches, eaſy chairs, cuſhions, cabinets, caſkets, drinking-glaſſes, china ware, and wardrobes, filled with rich clothes.

SALVADORE, the capital of the kingdom, is ſituated upon a very high hill, moſtly of ſolid rock, about two leagues in compaſs; and is ſhaded by a variety of fruit-trees, as the palm, lemon, and orange tree. It has a delightful proſpect all round, it commanding the neighbouring country on every ſide, as far as the eye can reach. It is ſeated almoſt in the center of the kingdom, by a large plain, well watered and covered with palms, and a great number of cattle. The city, being ſtrongly fortified by nature, has no walls, except on the ſouth ſide. The houſes ſtand pretty near to each other, moſt of them belonging to perſons of quality, who join ſuch a number of little ſtructures within one incloſure, that they appear like little towns. Thoſe which belong to the inferior people, run in ſtraight lines, forming neat ſtreets that are generally pretty broad.

THE royal palace is a ſpacious building encompaſſed with a ſquare wall, and reſembles a ſmall city; but the wall that faces the Portugueſe quarter, is the only one built of ſtone and mortar; the other three ſides being only of ſtraw, neatly diſpoſed; and the walls of the inner apartments are of the ſame materials, but covered with hangings or matts, curiouſly wrought. The inner courts contain gardens and orchards, adorned with alleys, arbours, and pavilions, that make a handſome ap-

pearance. Here are ten or twelve churches, of which the cathedral and ſeven others are within the town, and three within the palace. The Jeſuits have alſo a college. That part which is incloſed and called the Portugueſe city, is about a mile in compaſs, and the king's palace is nearly the ſame.

Of the INHABITANTS of CONGO.

THE original natives are generally black, though ſome are of a deeper dye than others, for their intermarriages with the Portugueſe have made them vary from their native hue; ſome to a dark brown, others to a blackiſh red, and others to a kind of olive. Their eyes are of a fine lively black, and their hair black and woolly; but they have neither thick lips, nor flat noſes. The common people are clothed, from the waiſt downwards, with palm-tree cloth; but people of diſtinction dreſs like the Portugueſe, and wear cloaks, Spaniſh hats, white jackets of ſcarlet ſilk, and leather or velvet ſlippers. The women of figure alſo dreſs like the Portugueſe, except their wearing no cloaks. They cover their head with a veil, over which they have a velvet cap adorned with jewels.

THEY, in general, behave with great friendſhip toward ſtrangers, and are of a mild, courteous, and affable diſpoſition. In converſation, they diſcover great quickneſs of parts, and expreſs themſelves with ſuch good ſenſe and humour, that perſons of the greateſt learning take delight in hearing them. But, on the other hand, they are ſaid to be proud, revengeful, and much addicted to poiſoning.

THE inhabitants chiefly live upon fruit, grain, roots, and pulſe: their uſual drink is water, but they

they regale themſelves with palm wine. They are fond of entertainments, and uſually feaſt in the evening, when they ſeat themſelves in a ring upon the graſs round a large wooden platter; and, if any perſon whatever happens to be paſſing by, he or ſhe thruſts into the ring, and has an equal ſhare with the reſt. At theſe entertainments they ſing love ſongs, and play upon ſeveral kinds of muſical inſtruments.

WORKING of iron is highly eſteemed among them, from a tradition that it's firſt inventor became afterwards king of Congo; yet it is performed in a very aukward manner. The workman ſits on the ground, or at beſt upon a ſtone, with an ill-ſhaped hammer in one hand, a piece of iron in the other, and, inſtead of an anvil, a flat ſtone between his legs, upon which he beats and ſhapes one iron, while his foot is moving a wretched pair of bellows, to heat another. Inſtead of digging the ore out of the mines, they content themſelves with what the heavy rains and torrents bring down in a kind of dirt into the vallies; and, for receiving it, dig holes and trenches. When it is ſettled at the bottom, and the water taken off, or dried up, they cover the hole with charcoal, and by blowing it, when lighted, purge the metal from it's droſs, and melt it into a lump, which they afterwards fabricate in the above manner, performing the whole with ſo little art, that their ſcymeters, cutlaſſes, and points of their lances, darts, and arrows, are ill-ſhaped and clumſy.

As to their joiners and carpenters, who are there of one trade, their tools conſiſt of an ill-ſhaped ax, the back of which ſerves for a hammer; at one end is alſo a kind of chiſſel, the other is ſharp-pointed like a puncheon, and both are faſtened to a wooden handle: The work they produce

duce is clumſy, and, being performed with ſuch aukward tools, is ſix times as long, before it is finiſhed, as a better hand, with proper tools, would be, in making a more perfect work.

THEIR manner of weaving is no leſs rude, and yet it is aſtoniſhing to ſee the curious work they perform by the moſt ſimple means, and without either loom or ſhuttle. They only faſten their threads at both ends to pieces of wood laid upon the ground, at an inconſiderable diſtance; for they never weave a piece of greater length than will ſerve for one ſingle garment. Having braced the threads of the woof as tight as they can, they conduct the threads acroſs with aſtoniſhing patience, as if they were rather darning than weaving; and yet ſome of them adorn their web with curious works in chequers, diamonds, network, and flowers in different colours, with ſurpriſing neatneſs, conſidering how it is performed: but an European weaver is able to do as much work in one day, as they in twenty.

THE potters, for want of a wheel, ſhape their clay by the help of a piece of a gourd, which ſerves them as a mould; and, inſtead of a kiln, burn a quantity of ſtraw over and about it.

THE government of Congo is as deſpotic as any in Africa or Aſia, the king being the ſole proprietor of all the lands within his dominions, which he beſtows upon whom he pleaſes, on condition of being paid a certain tribute The kingdom is partly hereditary, and partly elective; but the perſon choſen muſt be of the royal blood; but, whether born of a wife or concubine, it is not material, provided he be of the church of Rome; for none elſe are permitted to be candidates for the crown.

THE

THE Portugueſe have no ſooner agreed upon a ſucceſſor, than, all the grandees of the realm being ſummoned to appear near St. Salvadore, the capital, they proceed in pomp to the cathedral, once a noble ſtructure built by the Portugueſe, but ſince run to decay; however, on theſe occaſions, an altar is richly adorned, and near it is a ſplendid throne, on which the biſhop, or his vicar, is ſeated; and, near the other end of the altar, is a chair of ſtate, on which is ſeated an officer, who is to declare the perſon elected, and is ſurrounded by the candidates, who impatiently wait to know who is choſen; but, before he makes his proclamation, he riſes from his chair, and, kneeling before the altar, makes a prayer, and then, returning to his ſeat, pronounces a long ſpeech on the duties of a monarch, and the many cares and difficulties that attend the crown: afterwards obſerving that he and the other electors, have impartially weighed the merit of the candidates, and have choſen ſuch a one to enjoy the dignity of ſovereign. He then ſteps forward, takes him by the hand, and, bringing him to the biſhop, they both kneel before him, while the prelate gives him a ſhort admonition, exhorting him to ſhew himſelf a zealous protector of the Chriſtian religion, and an obedient ſon of the church. The king then takes the uſual oaths; after which the biſhop leads him by the hand to the throne erected for him, gives him the royal ſtandard, and places a crown upon his head. Upon which the whole aſſembly fall proſtrate before him, make loud acclamations, which are joined by martial inſtruments and the firing of artillery. From that time the new king takes the name of one of the kings of Portugal, as all his predeceſſors have done, ever ſince the reign of the firſt Chriſtian king.

WHEN

WHEN the king goes abroad, he is attended by a numerous guard, ſome of whom are armed with muſkets, and others with lances, bows, and arrows; but they march before him without any regularity; theſe are followed by crowds of muſicians, next to whom are the officers of the houſehold, followed by the knights of the Holy Croſs, an order inſtituted by the firſt Chriſtian king of Congo. The king then appears preceded by two young pages; one bearing a royal ſhield, covered with a tyger's ſkin, and the ſword of ſtate adorned with precious ſtones; the other holds a ſtaff, which has a large knob of ſilver at each end, and is covered with red velvet. On each ſide of the king, ride two officers, fanning him with horſes tails; and behind them a third holds, over his head, a large umbrella of red damaſk, richly fringed and embroidered. He proceeds to maſs with much the ſame pomp.

THOUGH the king is allowed but one wife, yet he may have as many concubines as he pleaſes; and theſe, on entering the palace, are confined during the remainder of their life.

THOUGH Popery has got a footing here, there are in this kingdom no ſtately cathedrals, patriarchs, archbiſhoprics, rich abbeys, or well endowed monaſteries and convents. Some of the natives are ſaid to embrace the Romiſh religion, only to ingratiate themſelves with the Portugueſe, while they retain all their old heatheniſh ſuperſtitions, and privately worſhip their idols. Others, who have perhaps received more inſtruction from their living nearer the churches, and under the eyes of the Portugueſe, will conform ſo far to the laws, as to go regularly to maſs and confeſſion, and will conſent to have but one wife; but could never be perſuaded of the unlawfulneſs of having as many concubines as they can maintain.

THE

THE principal commodities, brought by the Portugueſe into Congo, are either the produce of Brazil, or the manufactures of Europe; the former conſiſting chiefly of grain, fruit, plants, and other proviſions; and the latter of copper and braſs veſſels, Engliſh cloth, Turky carpets, light ſtuffs, made of cotton, linen, and woollen for clothing; tobacco, wine, brandy, and other ſpirituous liquors; blue earthen ware, rings, and ornaments of gold, ſilver, braſs, and baſer metals, coral, glaſs beads, bugles, and other trinkets. In return for theſe articles, the Portugueſe carry off ſuch a prodigious number of ſlaves, that ſome make the annual amount from this kingdom, and ſome of their other ſettlements on the ſame coaſt, to be fifteen or ſixteen thouſand.

CHAP. VI.

Of CAFFRARIA and the CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

CAFFRARIA is an extenſive country on the moſt ſouthern part of Africa, and is particularly famous on account of the Dutch ſettlement at the Cape of Good Hope, it's extremity to the ſouthward, and the unaccountable manners and cuſtoms of the Hottentots, it's original inhabitants. The greateſt part of the country about the Cape is filled with rocks and mountains, which, long after this country was diſcovered by the Europeans, by being only viewed at a diſtance, were thought to be barren, but their ſpacious ſummits are covered with rich paſtures, enamelled with a variety of flowers of uncommon beauty and fragrance,

grance, and abound with fine ſprings flowing in many ſtreams into the vallies. The ſkirts of the mountains are interſperſed with groves that afford excellent wood for inlaying; while the plains and vallies conſiſt of fine meadow lands, which nature has adorned with ſuch a profuſion of beauties as to charm the eye of the beholders, and are embelliſhed with the fineſt trees, plants, and flowers, that fill the air with the ſweeteſt odours.

THE ſoil is ſo extremely rich, as to be capable of every kind of culture; it bears almoſt all ſorts of grain, and every kind of fruit trees. The region about the Cape is, however, ſubject to boiſterous winds, which generally blow from the ſouth-eaſt or north-weſt; for, while the ſun is in the ſouthern ſigns, they hold in the ſouth-eaſt, and, while in the northern ſigns, in the north-weſt. In the ſouth-eaſt, they are troubleſome and dangerous to the ſhips coming in; in the north-weſt, to the ſhips at anchor; and, frequently blowing in a hurricane, not only endanger the ſhipping, but do incredible damage to the corn on the ground, and the fruit on the trees. Theſe boiſterous winds are, however, of excellent uſe; for, by purifying the air, and almoſt continually keeping it in a very briſk agitation, they contribute to the health of the inhabitants, who, when theſe winds lie ſtill for a week or ten days together, complain of the head-ach and other diſtempers, which vaniſh at their return. This country is ſituated in a temperate climate, where the exceſſes of heat and cold are ſeldom known; and the Dutch inhabitants, who are numerous, and who retain their native induſtry, have ſtocked it with prodigious plenty of all ſorts of fruit and proviſions, moſt of which, either from the equality of the ſeaſons, or the peculiarity of the ſoil, are more delicious in their kind

kind than can be met with elſe where; ſo that by theſe, and by the excellent water which abounds there, this ſettlement is the beſt provided of any in the known world, for the refreſhment of ſeamen after long voyages.

VEGETABLES.

THE vegetables of Caffraria, eſpecially in the countries near the Cape, are extremely numerous. Among thoſe natural to the ſoil is the aloe, of which there are many ſorts; and not a few of them are planted in the delightful gardens belonging to the Dutch Eaſt-India company. They are ſeen in great numbers on the mountains and the clefts of the rocks; and one ſort or other is in bloſſom throughout the year.

THE ananas, or pine-apples, at the Cape, are of the American race, and there are three ſorts of them in the Cape colonies; one called jajama, which is the largeſt and beſt-taſted: the colour on the outſide is red and dark yellow; but within it is near a perfect yellow. The other ſorts are the bonjama and the jajagna: the apple of theſe laſt ſpecies is white within, and in taſte reſembles Rheniſh wine. But we ſhall defer giving a particular deſcription of the anana, till we come to America; however, it will be proper here to obſerve, that theſe at the Cape have a certain acrimony, which the Cape Europeans remove by cutting them in ſlices, and laying them in ſpring water; and, if after this they are laid in Rheniſh wine, with ſugar ſcattered upon them, when they eat deliciouſly, having much the taſte of ſtrawberries. The Cape Europeans preſerve pine-apples in ſugar.

IN the company's fine garden is a tree of Indian extraction called the quajavo. It's fruit is in the ſhape

ſhape of an apple; and, when ripe, is yellow and green, with the inſide extremely yellow. It contains a number of white oval ſeeds, and is a wholeſome fruit of an exquiſite flavour. In this garden are alſo figs of various kinds, all of them admirably ſweet and good. The choiceſt and largeſt, called Piſang figs, grow upon a plant that has no ſooner brought them to maturity, than it withers away; and the next year a new plant yielding the ſame agreeable tribute, ſprings up from the root. It is remarkable that this plant has no ſtem, but it's leaves, which are from ſix to ſeven yards long, and from two to three yards broad, embrace each other from the ground upwards, forming a kind of ſtem. It's bloſſom conſiſts of four leaves, which form themſelves into a ſort of bell. One plant in the proper ſeaſon produces fifty or more of theſe delicious purple figs.

THERE are a great number of quince-trees in the Cape colonies, and the fruit is ſaid to be larger and better than the quinces produced in any other part of the world. Of this fruit the Cape Europeans make great advantage, they having ſeveral ways of preparing and preſerving quinces, which they ſell to the ſhips that touch at the Cape; they alſo make and ſell a great deal of marmalade. In the Cape colonies are likewiſe many citron-trees, which yield fruit all the year round. Peaches alſo grow ſo plentifully at the Cape, that in ſome ſeaſons the Europeans there have more than they can conſume, and therefore throw many of them to the hogs. Some people, however, preſerve them for the winter.

THERE are here two ſorts of Indian orange-trees, which are larger than any other trees of the ſame kind; and the fruit, which is much bigger, is ſpotted like the ſkin of a tyger. There are here likewiſe

likewiſe ſeveral ſorts of ſweet and ſour lemon-trees; and in the gardens are walks of them of a great length.

THE pomegranate-trees are much larger here than in any other part of the known world; the fruit is alſo ſo large and in ſuch plenty, that it is frequently neceſſary to prop up the branches, to prevent their being broken down by their weight. There are two ſorts of them, one of which has yellow kernels, and the other kernels of a crimſon-colour. The kernels of both contain a very pleaſant, cooling juice, which is extremely refreſhing in hot weather. There are alſo two ſorts of the netted melons, or pompions, which are of the Indian kind, and grow very plentifully in the Cape colonies. In ſhape and ſize they nearly reſemble our melons, but both are on the outſide of a dark green; and, within, the fruit of one ſort is of a whitiſh colour, with white ſeed; and in the other of a carnation, with black ſeed. Both ſorts are very ſweet and juicy; but that with the black ſeed is eſteemed the beſt; they are extremely comfortable and refreſhing in fevers, ſpeedily and very deliciouſly quenching the thirſt.

VINES were tranſplanted to the cape from the Rhine, from Perſia, and many other countries; theſe are vaſtly increaſed, and yield ſo plentifully, that the Cape Europeans have much more excellent wine than they can drink; and therefore ſell a great deal to the ſhips who touch there.

ANOTHER tree at the Cape is called cripple-wood, and is a dwarf-tree, with very crooked, knotty branches: the leaves are broad, rough, thick, and ſhaped like thoſe of the apple-tree; and the fruit reſembles the pine-apple. The bark, which is thick and wrinkled, is not only uſed by the tanners,

ners, but the phyſicians pulverize it, and adminiſter it with ſucceſs in dyſenteries.

THERE are here four ſorts of camphire-trees; one tranſplanted to the Cape from the iſland of Borneo, which is eſteemed much the beſt: the other three ſorts were brought from Japan, China, and Sumatra; they all grow very quick, and to the ſize of a walnut-tree. The inſide of the leaves is of an aſh-colour, and the outſide of a graſs-green; and, on rubbing them with the fingers, they ſend forth a ſtrong odour, like that of camphire. Theſe trees are ſo ſoft and tender that their branches are frequently ſtripped off by the wind, and ſometimes nothing is left ſtanding but the trunk.

THE Indian gold-tree at the Cape, grows about ſix feet high, and has ſmall leaves nearly of the colour of gold, ſpeckled with red, and are very beautiful. They have particularly a fine effect, when ranged in gardens among other trees. Yet the bloſſoms are very ſmall, and of a greeniſh colour, without the leaſt ſcent.

WE ſhall conclude this account of the vegetables at the Cape of Good Hope, with the ſtinkwood-tree, which grows to the ſize of an oak, and it's leaves are three fingers in breadth. It received it's name from it's filthy ſcent; for, while it is under the tool, it exhales ſo nauſeous a ſtench that the workmen can ſcarcely endure it; but, after ſome time, this goes intirely off. The wood being beautifully clouded, the Cape Europeans have tables, preſſes, and ſeveral other uſeful and ornamental pieces of furniture made of it.

ANIMALS.

THE largeſt animals at the Cape are the elephant and the rhinoceros, which are there in great

great numbers; buffaloes are alſo very numerous in the Cape countries: they are larger than thoſe of Europe, and are of a brown red, while the European buffaloes are black. Thoſe of the Cape are well-proportioned, hold their heads aloft, and have their foreheads covered with hard frizzled hair; their horns are, however, ſhort, and bend inwards, ſo that their points almoſt meet. Their ſkin is hard and tough, ſo that it is difficult to kill them without very good fire-arms; but their fleſh is neither ſo fat nor ſo tender as that of a common ox. The Cape buffalo is inraged at the ſight of red cloth, and at the diſcharge of a gun near him, in both which caſes he roars, ſtamps, tears up the ground, and runs ſo furiouſly at the offending party, as to beat down all oppoſition. A conſiderable body of Europeans at the Cape once chaced a buffalo, and, having driven him to the water-place, as it is called, near the Cape harbour, the beaſt turned, and ran furiouſly at one of his purſuers, who was in a red waiſtcoat, and who, nimbly ſkipping aſide, ran towards the water, where the buffalo, purſuing him, obliged him to plunge in to ſave his life. He ſwam well, and as quick as poſſible; but the buffalo leaping in after him, purſued him ſo cloſely, that he could only ſave himſelf by diving. The buffalo, thus loſing ſight of him, ſwam towards the oppoſite ſhore, which was at three miles diſtance; and our author obſerves, that he would undoubtedly have reached it, had he not received a ſhot from one of the ſhips in the harbour.

THE zebras of the Cape, which are of the ſame ſpecies with that in the queen's poſſeſſion, are very beautiful creatures, and are improperly called wild-aſſes, for they are of the ſize of an ordinary ſaddle-horſe, and reſemble an aſs in nothing but the length

of

of their ears. The legs of this fine and well proportioned animal, are ſlender, and the hair on his body ſoft and ſleek. On the ridge of his back, a black ſtreak extends from his mane to his tail, and on each ſide are a great many ſtreaks of various colours, that meet under his belly in ſo many circles; ſome are white, ſome yellow, and ſome of a cheſnut-colour; and theſe colours loſe themſelves in one another, in a very beautiful manner. His head, ears, mane, and tail, are alſo ſtreaked with the ſame variety. He is ſo ſwift that, it is ſaid, there is not an horſe in the world that can keep up with him.

THE elk of the Cape is very different in it's form from thoſe of Europe, which we have deſcribed in treating of the animals of Sweden and Lapland. It is generally five feet high; and it's head, which reſembles that of the hart, is ſmall in proportion to it's body. The horns, which are only about a foot long, run up twiſting; but the ends are ſtraight, ſmooth, and pointed: the neck is ſlender and beautiful, and the legs alſo ſlender, and of greath length; the hair of the body, which is of an aſh-colour, is ſmooth and ſoft, and the tail about a foot long. The fleſh, which taſtes agreeably, either boiled or roaſted, reſembles that of good beef. Theſe ſtately animals are generally found on high mountains, where there are good paſture-grounds, and near ſome ſprings. They climb the higheſt rocks, and paſs the moſt difficult ways with ſurpriſing diſpatch and ſecurity; yet ſometimes viſit the vallies, and frequently attempt to enter the gardens; whence the inhabitants place traps before thoſe that are moſt expoſed to their inroads. Theſe gardens being uſually encompaſſed with a ditch, over which is a bridge at the entrance, they fix in the ground, at one corner of the bridge, a ſtrong,

pliant,

pliant, taper pole, by the broad end; fixing to the ſmall end of it a long rope, by which that end of the pole is pulled down to the other corner of the bridge, where it is faſtened ſo ſlightly, that by a ſmall touch it is freed, and flies up with great force. When the ſmall end of the pole is thus properly fixed, the remainder of the rope is formed into ſeveral nooſes and coils, and laid under the arch of the pole. An elk, coming to one of theſe gardens, and finding no communication but by the bridge before the door, ſteps upon it through the arch; and, hampering his legs in the coils of the rope, ſhakes the pole, on which the ſmall end flying up, and faſtening him in one of the nooſes, he is drawn up, and unable to eſcape. If by ſtruggling he breaks the pole, it is a hundred to one but he falls into the ditch; and, if he eſcapes that, he drags a piece of the pole after him, which ſo embarraſſes him in his march, that he is eaſily taken.

THE hart of the Hottentot countries reſembles thoſe of Europe in every thing but it's horns, which are only about a foot long, and have no branches; but run up twiſting in the manner of a ſcrew to about half the length; then, turning a little outward, are ſtraight and ſmooth to the point.

THERE are here goats of many different ſpecies, the moſt remarkable of which are the following: the blue goats are ſhaped like thoſe of Europe, but are as large as a hart. Their hair, which is very ſhort, is of a fine blue; though, when they are killed, it fades to a bluiſh grey; their beards are pretty long; and their horns, which are ſhort and very neat, run curiouſly up in rings till within a little of the point, which is ſtraight and ſmooth. Spotted goats are ſometimes ſeen in herds of above a thouſand in number; and are covered with red, white, and

brown ſpots; they are rather larger than the blue goats; and their beards, which are of a brown red, are very long. Their legs are well-proportioned to their bodies; and the joints about their fetlocks, are of a dark brown. Their horns, which are about a foot long, incline backwards, running up twiſting to the middle, from whence to the end they are very ſtraight and ſmooth. The young ones are eaſily taken, and rendered ſo tame, as to run with flocks of ſheep; and their fleſh is very agreeable food. There is another ſort of goat which has a very beautiful head, adorned with two, ſmooth, bending, pointed horns, three feet long. A white ſtreak runs from the forehead along the ridge of his back to his tail, and is croſſed by three ſtreaks, one over his ſhoulders; another is on the middle of the back, running down both ſides to his belly; the third croſſes it above his buttocks, and runs down them. On all the other parts of his body the hair is greyiſh, with little touches of red; only the belly approaches to white. His beard is grey and pretty long, as are alſo his legs. The female, which is leſs than the male, is without horns; and their fleſh is alſo very agreeable food. The Cape rock-goat is ſeldom bigger than an European kid of a quarter old, and his horns are about half a foot long; as he frequently enters the vineyards and gardens, where he does great miſchief, he is narrowly watched, and often taken; and his fleſh is eſteemed a great dainty. The laſt we ſhall mention is called the diving goat, which is almoſt as large as an ordinary tame one, and is much of the ſame colour; but he no ſooner ſees any perſon or thing, from which he apprehends danger, than he ſquats down in the graſs; and ſeeing nothing but graſs about him, perhaps imagines himſelf unſeen; for thus he lies, giving

giving now and then a peep out, and drawing his head ſuddenly down again, till either the danger is paſt, or he is ſeized, ſhot, or knocked on the head.

Lions are very common at the Cape, where they are extremely large: every limb is expreſſive of the greateſt ſtrength: the firmneſs of his tread, his dreadful paws, and ſparkling eyes, command the attention, and ſhew his ſtrength ſuperior to that of other animals. Some authors have affirmed that the bones of the lion are not ſo hard as they have been repreſented by the ancients; but Mr. Kolben obſerves, that the hollow which runs through the ſhin-bone of a lion, is as ſmall as that which runs through a tobacco-pipe; and when it is broken to pieces, and the greaſineſs exhauſted by the heat of the ſun, theſe pieces appear as hard, as ſmooth, and ſolid as flints; and ſerve altogether as well to ſtrike fire with. Indeed, a conſiderable part of his ſtrength lies in the hardneſs of his bones; for, when he comes upon his prey, he knocks it down dead, and never bites till he has given the mortal blow, which he generally accompanies with a terrible roar. When inraged, or pinched with hunger, he erects and ſhakes his mane, laſhing his back and ſides with his tail. When thus employed, it is certain death to come in his way. And, as he generally lurks for his prey behind buſhes, travellers are ſometimes devoured by him; but if he neither ſhakes his mane, nor makes any great motion with his tail, a traveller may be fully aſſured that he ſhall paſs by him in ſafety. A horſe no ſooner diſcovers a lion than he runs full ſpeed; and, if he has a rider, throws him, if poſſible, in order to run the faſter. When a traveller on horſeback diſcovers a lion, the beſt method of preſervation is inſtantly to diſ-

mount, and abandon his horſe, which the lion will purſue, without taking notice of him. The fleſh of the lion has no ill taſte, and eats ſomething like veniſon.

THE leopard and tyger are of the ſame nature, and in point of fierceneſs, next to the lion. The only difference between them at the Cape is in their ſize, and the figure of their ſpots. The tyger is much larger than the leopard; and is diſtinguiſhed by rings of black hair, incloſing ſpots of yellow; while the black ſtreaks on the leopard are not round, but formed with an opening. The fleſh of a tyger or leopard is white, tender, and well-taſted; it is even ſaid to be much finer eating than the beſt veal, and to have every good quality that can be wiſhed for in meat, and the fleſh of the young ones is as tender as that of a chicken.

IN this country are two ſorts of wolves, one like thoſe of Europe, and the other called tyger wolves. The latter are of the ſize of a ſhepherd's dog, or ſomewhat larger; and the head broad, like that of an Engliſh bull-dog. It's jaws, noſe, and eyes are alſo large, and it's hair is frizzled, and ſpotted like that of a tyger. His feet are large, and armed with ſtrong talons, which he draws in like a cat, and is not heard in his tread; but his tail is ſhort. All day he keeps in clefts of the rocks, or holes in the ground, ſeeking his prey only in the night, howling moſt diſmally while he is out upon the prowl, which rouſes the dogs who keep the flocks: theſe join together againſt him, and drive him away; but, if he gets ſafe into a fold, he generally kills two or three ſheep; and having fed heartily upon the ſpot, carries a carcaſe away to his den. The lion, tyger, and leopard follow him by his howl, and coming ſoftly near him, ſuddenly leap upon him, and tear him to pieces.

THERE

THERE are here alſo wild dogs, which ſometimes make great havock among the cattle. They ſeem a ſpecies of hounds, and packs of thirty, and ſometimes forty of them, encounter lions, tygers, and other animals, which by their numbers they conquer. They ſpend the greateſt part of the day in the chace, and drag what they kill to a place of rendezvous, where they ſhare it amongſt them. Both the Europeans and Hottentots, when they diſcover theſe dogs on the chace, follow them to the place of rendezvous, and take what they think proper of what the dogs have killed, which they permit them to do very quietly. The Hottentots eat what they take from the dogs; and what the Europeans take they ſalt for their ſlaves. Theſe dogs however ſometimes deſtroy ſeventy or eighty ſheep in one flock.

IN this country is a little creature called a rattle-mouſe, though it is larger than an European ſquirrel, and has a head ſhaped like that of a bear. The hair on the back is of a liver-colour, but that on the ſides is almoſt black. With it's tail, which is neither very long, nor very hairy, it, from time to time, makes a rattling noiſe, and thence obtained it's name. It feeds on acorns, nuts, and the like; it purs like a cat, and is moſtly ſeen on trees, leaping from one to another, after the manner of the ſquirrel. It is ſo nimble, and bites ſo cloſe, that it is ſeldom taken alive.

ONE of the moſt extraordinary animals of this or any other country is called by the Dutch ſtinkbingſen, or ſtinkbox; ſtinking being the grand defence this creature has received from nature againſt all it's enemies; a defence more effectual than the ſtrongeſt horns, the ſharpeſt teeth and talons. It is of the ſhape of a ferret, but as large as a middle-ſized dog. When it's purſuer, whether

man or beaſt, comes pretty near, it pours from it's tail ſo horrid a ſtench, that it is impoſſible to endure it; a man being almoſt ſtruck down by it before he can get away; and a dog or other animal is ſo ſtrangely confounded, that he is obliged every minute to ſtop to rub his noſe in the graſs, or againſt a tree. This animal, having thus ſtopped his purſuer, gets a great way a-head before the chace can be renewed; and, if he comes up with him a ſecond time, he gives him another doſe, and by this means eſcapes again. Thus he proceeds till his purſuer, overpowered by the ſtink, is obliged to deſiſt. This animal is, however, ſometimes ſhot by the Europeans, but they are obliged to ſuffer it to lie till it rots; for it is no ſooner dead than it's whole body contracts ſo nauſeous a ſmell, that, if any one does but touch it with his fingers, they retain a ſtench that can neither be endured, nor eaſily got off by any kind of waſhing. Beſides theſe, there are a great number of other animals, particularly wild horſes.

AMONG the feathered race at the Cape, there are a vaſt variety, the moſt particular of which are the oſtriches, of which we have already given a deſcription, in treating of the animals in Turky in Aſia.

THE flamingo is a fine and beautiful bird, larger than the ſwan; the bill is very broad, and the upper mandible, which is longer than the other, is very crooked, and bends conſiderably over it. The bill is black at the point, but, every-where elſe, of a dark blue, and is furniſhed with ſharp teeth. The neck is much longer than that of the ſwan; and both the head and neck are white as ſnow; the upper part of the wing feathers are of a high flame colour, and the lower part of them black. The legs are of an orange colour, and half as long again as thoſe of the ſtork; and the feet reſemble

reſemble thoſe of the gooſe. Theſe birds which are here very numerous, keep in the day-time on the lakes and rivers, and at night retire to the hills, where they ſleep among the long graſs. Their tongue eats like marrow, and their fleſh is well-taſted and wholeſome.

THE ſpoonbill, alſo called the ſerpent-eater, is ſomewhat larger than a full grown gooſe, which it reſembles in it's neck; the bill is broad, long, and ſtraight, ending in ſomewhat like the bowl of a ſpoon; the eyes are grey, and the feathers of the tail are about ſix inches in length. Theſe birds feed upon ſerpents, toads, frogs, &c. and are of ſuch ſervice in deſtroying the former, that they are ſeldom killed.

AMONG the wild fowl is a ſort of birds called the knorcock and knorhen. Theſe are a kind or centinels, and give warning to all other birds of the approach of danger; for they no ſooner diſcover a man, than they repeat the cry of crack, crack, very clamorouſly; and thus frequently diſappoint the ſportſman; for the other birds no ſooner hear them, than they fly quite out of ſight. This bird is of the ſize of a common barn-door fowl; the bill is ſhort and black, as are alſo the feathers on the crown of the head; but the reſt are a motley of red, white, and aſh-colour; the wings are ſmall, which prevent it's flying far at once, and the legs are yellow. Theſe birds generally keep in heaths, far from the habitations of men; and their fleſh is of an agreeable taſte.

THE blue-bird of the Cape is of the ſize of a ſterling; the feathers of the neck and thighs are of a ſky blue, and thoſe of the back and wings of a dark blue, approaching to black. The bill, which is between three and four inches long, is pointed, and the under mandible of a dark red. The fleſh of this bird is delicate food.

AMONG the ſeveral kinds of wood-peckers, is a beautiful bird called the green-peak, it being all over green, except a red ſpot on the head, and another on the breaſt. It feeds on ſmall inſects, which it picks from the bark of trees.

THERE is here a little bird called by the Cape Europeans the long tongue; it is ſomewhat larger than the goldfinch, with yellow feathers on the belly, and the reſt ſpeckled. The tongue, which nature has given it for it's defence, is not only long and pointed, but as hard as iron, and as ſharp as the point of a needle; therefore, when any perſon endeavours to ſeize this little animal, it makes uſe of it's tongue to prick and wound him. It's claws are pretty long, and it's feet like thoſe of the nightingale. It's fleſh is well-taſted and wholeſome

THE honeyeaters, or gnatſnappers, live intirely on honey, bees, gnats, and flies; their bill is red, long, ſtraight, and very ſtrong. On the upper part of the breaſt, the feathers are of a deep azure, and thoſe on the lower part of a pale blue: the wings and tail feathers are black, as are alſo their legs, which are very long. Theſe birds are a ſort of guides to the Hottentots in their ſearching for honey, which the bees depoſit in the clifts of the rocks. Beſides theſe, there are a great variety of other fowl, as wild peacocks, pheaſants, quails, ducks, turkeys, &c.

THERE are here many kinds of ſnakes or ſerpents, ſome of which are extremely venomous.

THE dipſas, or thirſt-ſerpent, receives it's name from it's bite cauſing a burning thirſt. It is frequently to be met with in the Cape countries, and is about three quarters of a yard in length; has a broad neck, and a blackiſh back. It is very nimble in it's aſſaults, and it's bite ſoon inflames the

the blood, cauſing a moſt dreadful thirſt. Mr. Kolben obſerves that he knew a man at the Cape, who, on his being bitten by this ſerpent in the calf of his leg, inſtantly tied his garter very tight above the knee; and above the garter tied ſome other thing he had at hand, to ſtop the courſe of the poiſon upwards; and then haſted as quick as poſſible to the neareſt houſe, which belonged to a ſmith, with whom he was acquainted; but, before he got thither, his leg was much ſwelled, and he became extremely thirſty. He impatiently aſked the ſmith for water to drink, and at the ſame time told him what had happened; but the ſmith who was acquainted with the nature of the poiſon, and the manner of cure, would not ſuffer him to drink a drop; but told him he muſt immediately conſent to have his ſwelled leg laid open. He ſubmitted; and, on opening the leg, there iſſued out a great deal of a watery yellow humour. The ſmith then prepared a pretty large plaiſter, and bound it over the inciſion, adviſing him to refrain from drinking for a quarter of an hour. He did ſo, and in that time his thirſt was conſiderably abated, and the plaiſter had drawn a great deal more of the yellow humour; and, being cleaned, was put on again. The ſwelling was, by this time, conſiderably abated, and the patient not only grew eaſy, but was ſoon perfectly cured.

THE tree-ſerpent is thus named, from it's being generally ſeen in trees. It is about two yards long, and three quarters of an inch in thickneſs, and, by winding itſelf about the branches of trees, remains for a long time without motion; it being ſo like the branch it covers, that one, who has not a very good eye, or ſome knowledge of this reptile, would be miſtaken: all the difference, in point of colour, conſiſts in it's being a little ſpeck-

led. If a perſon ſtands near the ſide on which it is lodged, it darts it's head at his face, and ſometimes wounds him; which it has no ſooner done, than, drawing back it's head, it turns about, in order to deſcend from the tree, by winding from one part to another; but is ſo ſlow that it is eaſy to kill it before it reaches the ground.

THE hair-ſerpent of the Cape is about a yard long, and three quarters of an inch thick; but, though ſo ſmall, it's poiſon is reckoned more malignant than that of moſt others, it's bite cauſing inſtant death, unleſs an antidote be immediately applied. The moſt effectual remedy is the ſerpent-ſtone brought from India, of which we have given a particular account in treating of Indoſtan.

ONE ſpecies of ſnakes is called by the Dutch houſe-ſerpents; and are from an inch and a quarter to an inch and a half in thickneſs; and about a yard in length. They are not only fond of being in houſes, but of getting into people's beds, and lying with them all night. They will ſlip through the hands like eels; and, when you drive them out of bed, uſe them as you will, if you do not quite diſable them, they will get into bed again. When they are offended they bite, but, happily, their bite is not poiſonous, nor attended with any ill conſequence.

SCORPIONS are here ſo numerous, that the Cape Europeans are very cautious of handling heaps of ſtones, where they generally harbour, for fear of being ſtung by them. There are here alſo a few of the centipedes, which are red and white, and about a finger's length, but ſcarce half ſo thick: they are downy like the caterpillar, and have two horns. Their bite is as dangerous as that of the ſcorpion; but the application of

roaſted

roasted onions to the wound is an effectual remedy. Among the spiders are many sorts; but one, no bigger than a pea, is very dangerous. It is of a black colour, and very active, it fastening on the walls or ciclings of houses; and, in the fields, fixes it's web in the grass. It's bite is so poisonous, that it causes death, unless a remedy be applied in time.

AMONG the fish in the sea and rivers at the Cape of Good Hope, are a vast variety, unknown in other places, besides most of those found in Europe; but we shall only mention those that appear most extraordinary. Among these is the torpedo, of which we have lately given a full description.

THE gold-fish is of a very different kind from that of China, and received it's name from a circle of a gold colour about each eye, and a streak of the same colour from the head, along the ridge of the back to the tail. It is about a foot and a half long, and a pound weight. The teeth are small, but very sharp, and do good execution upon muscles and other fish. The colour of the meat is a mixture of white and red; and it is not only esteemed very wholesome, but a great cleanser of the blood.

THE Cape silver-fish is of a very white colour, adorned with several streaks that resemble bright silver, falling from the ridge of the back, down both sides; and the tail seems covered with silver. It is of the shape and taste of a carp, has small sharp teeth, and weighs about a pound. Both these, and the gold-fish, appear in the sea only at certain times, when they come in shoals, and great numbers of them are caught.

THE bennet is a very beautiful fish, of which there is great plenty. It is covered with large scales of a bright purple, intermixed with streaks of gold. The eyes are red, the mouth small,

and without teeth; and near the gills are two gold-coloured fins; but the other fins are of a light yellow. The tail is reddiſh, and in the form of an open pair of ſciſſars. The ſcales ſeem tranſparent, as does likewiſe the ſkin; but, when the ſcales are off, the ſkin is of a bright purple. It is of the length and thickneſs of a man's arm, and weighs from ſix to eight pounds. The meat is of a crimſon colour, and is divided into ſeveral parts by a ſort of membranous ſubſtance interwoven with it. It is agreeable to the palate, and eaſy of digeſtion.

THE ſea about the Cape abounds with a very fine fiſh called by the Cape Europeans the ſtone-braſſem. Of theſe there are ſeveral ſorts; one is ſhaped like a carp, but is much finer eating, and weighs from two to eight pounds. They are of different colours, but their backs are brown; ſome have ſeveral brown ſtreaks falling on both ſides from the back to the belly, which add not a little to the beauty of the ſcales, which, on the belly, are large and white. A ſpecies of theſe fiſh have the name of red ſtone-braſſems; the ſkin and ſcales being red, ſpeckled with blue; and in the middle of the fiſh, with gold-colour. The belly is of a pale green; the eyes are large and red, with a ſilver circle about each. The mouth is ſmall, and, as it were, under the gullet, and is furniſhed with little ſharp teeth. Theſe fiſh are called Jacob Everſſons*. This fiſh is of a delicate

* The reaſon of theſe fiſh being called Jacob Everſſons is given by Franciſci, and is allowed at the Cape to be ſtrictly true. "There was many years ago, ſays he, a maſter of a "ſhip at the Cape, whoſe name was Jacob Everſſon; he had "a very red face, and was ſo deep-pitted with the ſmall-pox, "that

cate taſte, and is very wholeſome, nouriſhing food. There is a ſpecies of them, which differ from theſe laſt deſcribed, in their being larger, in their having ſhorter mouths, and the out-parts of the gullet of a deeper red.

Among the ſhell-fiſh at the Cape, the ſea porcupine-ſnail appears worthy of notice. It has many beautiful colours, and is armed almoſt in every part with long prickles, which ſtand out much after the ſame manner as the raiſed quills of the porcupine. Sea ſuns and ſea ſtars are alſo driven aſhore by the tide: their ſhells are multangular, approaching to a globular form; but the ſea ſun is the ſmalleſt, and it's ſhells nearly reſemble a globe. The ſhells of both are alſo covered with a thick, ſcaly ſkin, and have ſmall

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"that his beard, which was black, could never be ſhaved ſo "cloſe, but that ſeveral hairs would remain in the pock-"frets: ſo that his face, when it was ſhaved, had the colour, "and ſeemed to have the ſpecks of the red ſtone-braſſem. "This Jacob being once a fiſhing with his crew for red "ſtone-braſſem, at Maurice-iſland, beyond the Cape, and "the crew dining that day very joyfully upon this ſort of "fiſh, one of them took it in his head, in a fit of mirth, "to call it the Jacob Everſſon. The crew was ſtruck with "the brightneſs of the alluſion, and received it with the "higheſt agitations of mirth, and with thunders of applauſe; "and, when they got back to the Cape, they immediately "publiſhed this new name for the red ſtone-braſſem. The "ſettlers (among whom Jacob was very well known) were as "much ſtruck, as the crew, with the juſtneſs of the name, and "very merrily agreed to call a red ſtone-braſſem a Jacob "Everſſon ever after. Every one that knew Jacob being "raviſhed with the mirth in the alluſion, this new name for "the red ſtone-braſſem, together with the reaſon of it's "aſſignment, ſoon after reached ſeveral ſettlements in the "Indies; and was ſo well received there, that red ſtone-"braſſems (of which the Indian ſeas furniſh plenty) have "gone there by the name of Jacob Everſſons ever ſince."

prickles

prickles upon them, ſhooting out every way like beams of light, whence they receive their names; but the prickles on the ſea ſuns are longer than thoſe of the ſea ſtars. There is here alſo that beautiful ſhell-fiſh called the nautilus, of which we ſhall give an account in treating of America, and ſhall here only add, that here is a very extraordinary ſhell-fiſh, called by the Cape Europeans the pager; it is covered with dark brown ſcales, ſpotted with red and black; but on the back of it, near the head, has a miſchievous kind of horn or prickle, of a poiſonous nature, which is apt to wound the hand that touches it; in which caſe it cauſes a moſt acute pain and inflammation, and without ſpeedy aſſiſtance the hand periſhes.

Of the HOTTENTOTS.

MANY have attempted to deſcribe theſe people, who never ſtaid a week at the Cape; and therefore it is no wonder that the accounts given of them are very different. We ſhall take what we have to ſay on this ſubject from Mr. Kolben, ſecretary to baron Van Kroſick, privy-counſellor to the king of Pruſſia, who ſent our author to the Cape of Good Hope, to make obſervations on the appearance of the heavenly bodies, and who ſtaid there ſeveral years.

MOST of the men are from five to ſix feet high, but the women a great deal leſs; both ſexes are very erect and well-made, there not being a crooked limb, or any other deformity, to be ſeen among them. As their heads are generally large, their eyes are ſo in proportion; and their aſpect has ſomething ſweet and compoſed, expreſſive of the utmoſt benevolence. Their worſt features are their large, flat noſes, and thick lips; but the flatneſs of the noſe

noſe is not natural, but cauſed by art. Their teeth are as white as ivory; and their cheeks have ſomething of the cherry; but, from their continual daubings, it is generally concealed. The men have large, broad feet; but thoſe of the women are ſmall; and neither ſex cut the nails either of their fingers or toes. But, what is very extraordinary, all authors agree in obſerving, that every Hottentot woman is diſtinguiſhed by having a broad callous kind of flap growing to their bellies, which ſeems intended by nature to hide what civilized nations are taught moſt carefully to conceal*; and ſome of them are ſaid to have it ſo large, that it is often ſeen below the ſheeps-ſkin they wear before them.

THE Hottentots are univerſally allowed to be a very naſty people; this is chiefly occaſioned by the cuſtom of ſmearing their bodies and apparel with mutton fat, butter, or marrow, mixed with the ſoot that gathers round their boiling pots, in order to make them look black, they being naturally of a nut or olive colour. This cuſtom they repeat as often as the greaſe is dried up by the duſt or ſun, and the indigent are uſually obliged to make uſe of that which is rank; but the more wealthy always beſmear themſelves with the freſheſt and choiceſt that can be had. Every part of the body, from the crown of the head to the ſole of the foot, is thoroughly daubed with this filthy paint; and the richer they are, the more fat and butter they uſe†: but they have an extreme averſion

* Thevenot, in his Travels, ſays, the negroes, Egyptians, and the women of ſome other nations, are ſubject to the like excreſcence, but ſtop the growth of it very early, by ſearing it with a hot iron.

† It is worthy of obſervation that the cuſtom of rubbing and greaſing the ſkin is obſerved by almoſt all uncivilized nations;

averſion to the fat of fiſh. What renders them ſtill more diſagreeable is their ſuffering their woolly hair to be matted together with fat and dirt, which renders them abominably louſy, and gives them a very offenſive ſmell.

WITH reſpect to their dreſs, the men have no other covering for the head than this compoſition of fat and ſoot, which, they ſay, keeps their heads cool, under the hotteſt rays of the ſun; but, in cold and wet weather, they wear caps, made of cat or lamb ſkins, tied on with ſtrings. The mantles they hang over their ſhoulders, which they call croſſes, are worn open or cloſed according to the ſeaſon. Thoſe of the moſt wealthy are of the ſkins of tygers or wild cats; and thoſe of the common people of ſheep-ſkins. Theſe they wear all the year round, in ſummer turning the hairy ſide outward, and, in winter, turning it inward: they lie upon them in the night, and, when they die, are tied up in them, when put into their graves. When they wear theſe mantles open, you ſee the fore part of their bodies naked to the bottom of the belly, where they are covered with a ſquare piece of the ſkin of a wild beaſt, tied round the waiſt with the hairy ſide outward.

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nations; and, however abſurd and ridiculous it may appear to us, there is no doubt of it's being attended with ſome conſiderable advantages. It has in particular a natural tendency to promote the ſuppleneſs of the joints; and thence the Hottentots, though a lazy race, are perhaps the ſwifteſt of foot, of any people upon earth; for they, not only dart away from the ſwifteſt European, but ſome of them will out-run the fleeteſt horſe. Beſides, by their living almoſt naked, they, by their thus cloſing the pores with greaſe, prevent that exceſſive perſpiration which would otherwiſe exhauſt their ſpirits, and enervate their bodies. Another advantage is it's preſerving them from being bit by the muſcatoes and other inſects.

When

When they drive their herds to paſture, they put on a kind of leather ſtockings, to ſecure their legs from being ſcratched by the thorns and briars; and when they are to paſs over rocks, they wear a kind of ſandals, made of the raw hide of an elephant or an ox, each conſiſting of one piece, turning up about half an inch round the foot, with the hairy ſide outward, and faſtened on with ſtrings. The men alſo generally wear three rings of ivory upon the left arm, which they form from the elephants' teeth they find in the woods, and finiſh with ſuch art as would ſurpriſe an European turner. Theſe rings ſerve them as guards when they fight an enemy; but when they travel, they faſten to them a bag, in which they carry their proviſions. The Hottentot has alſo a little bag round his neck, in which he carries his pipe and tobacco.

The women wear caps all the year round, made of the ſkins of wild beaſts, pointing up ſpirally from the crown of the head. They generally wear two mantles round their ſhoulders, which, like thoſe of the men, cover their backs, and ſometimes reach down to their hams. Between them they faſten a ſucking child, if they have one, with the head juſt peeping over their ſhoulders. They cover their poſteriors with a ſkin, which generally reaches below the hams; and have another before, which is always of ſheep-ſkin, ſtripped of the wool. About their neck they conſtantly wear a leather bag, which contains ſome kind of food, a pipe, tobacco, &c. The girls, till twelve years of age, wear rings of bull-ruſhes from their knees down to their ancles. Theſe are then laid aſide, and their place is ſupplied with rings of the thickneſs of the little finger, made of ſlips of ſheep or calf ſkin, from which

which the hair is ſinged. Some women have above a hundred of theſe rings upon each leg, ſo curiouſly joined that they ſeem like neat pieces of turnery. They are as ſmooth and as hard as wood, and, when they dance, make a clattering noiſe. As the women every day walk through the buſhes, and brambles, to gather roots and other things for food, theſe rings preſerve their legs from being torn by them; they are alſo eſteemed very ornamental; and, if at any time they are almoſt famiſhed with hunger, they pull them off, bruiſe them between two ſtones, and then broil and eat them. But the principal part of their finery conſiſts in ſtrings of glaſs beads, braſs buttons and plates, which they hang round their necks and their waiſts, and form into bracelets for their arms. It is likewiſe an invariable cuſtom, among the men of diſtinguiſhed valour, to wear a bladder of ſome wild beaſt they have ſlain, blown up and faſtened to their hair, where they hang as honourable trophies of their courage. But, with this finery, the men and women are not completely dreſſed, unleſs their heads are laviſhly powdered with a pulverized herb called buchu. The women likewiſe paint their faces with a red earth, making a ſpot over each eye, one upon the noſe, one upon each cheek, and one upon the chin. The men uſually carry in their hand a ſmall ſtick, about a foot long, to which is faſtened the tail of a wild cat, fox, or other beaſt that has a buſhy tail; and this ſerves as an handkerchief to rub the ſweat off their faces, wipe their noſes, and clear away the duſt and dirt that gathers about their eyes; and this they clean by plunging and toſſing it about in the water.

SOME authors have repreſented the Hottentots as being void of underſtanding, and as ſcarce poſ-

ſeſſing

ſeſſing the leaſt glimpſe of reaſon and humanity; but this is intirely falſe: for the learned Mr. Kolben obſerves, that he has known many of them, who underſtood Dutch, French, and Portugueſe, to a degree of perfection; and one in particular, who learned Engliſh and Portugueſe, in a very ſhort time; and was ſaid by good judges to underſtand and ſpeak them, with a ſurpriſing readineſs and propriety. They are eſteemed, at the Cape, the moſt faithful ſervants in the world; and though they are exceſſively fond of tobacco, cutlery-ware, wine, and brandy; and will at any time part with the moſt valuable things they have, to purchaſe them; they will neither diminiſh them themſelves, when committed to their care, nor ſuffer any one elſe to do it. Their care and fidelity on theſe occaſions is ſurpriſing; and they are even employed by the Dutch in affairs that require great judgment and capacity. They are alſo diſtinguiſhed by their humanity, and no people are more generous and more ready to perform acts of kindneſs, when it is in their power. But they ſeem to place human happineſs in ſloth and indolence; and, though they can think to the purpoſe, they never exert their mental powers, but in caſes of neceſſity, that is, to remove ſome preſſing want of their own, or their friends. If not rouſed by any preſent appetite or neceſſity, the Hottentot is as deaf to thought and action as a log; but, when thus urged, he is all activity. They behave with great regard to decency, and nothing paſſes between them before company that is ſhocking to modeſty. They are never ſeen to eaſe nature; and, if an European takes the liberty to fart before them, they make no ſcruple of telling him that he ought to be aſhamed.

THE

THE Hottentots have been repreſented as having no notion of a God, a Providence, or a Future State: but Mr. Kolben, after a long acquaintance with them, found that they believe a Supreme Being, who does no-body any hurt, and dwells far above the moon. They look upon the moon as an inferior deity, and aſſemble conſtantly to worſhip her at full and change, believing her to have the diſpoſal of the weather. They likewiſe worſhip an evil deity, whom they look upon as the father of all miſchief, who ſtirs up enemies againſt them, fruſtrates all their good deſigns, afflicts them and their cattle with diſeaſes, and ſets on wild beaſts to devour them. There is alſo a kind of inſect which they adore as a benign deity, and they pay a ſort of religious veneration to their departed ſaints and men of renown. They conſecrate woods, mountains, fields, and rivers to their memory; and, when they paſs by any of theſe places, they ſtop to contemplate the virtues of the deceaſed, and to implore his protection for them and their cattle.

THE proviſions of the Hottentots conſiſt not only of the fleſh and entrails of cattle, and of certain wild beaſts, but of fruit and roots. They ſeldom kill any cattle for their own eating, except upon ſolemn occaſions; but, like the Chineſe, eat thoſe that die naturally. The women furniſh their tables with fruit, roots, and milk; and when they are not contented with theſe, they go a hunting; or, if they live near the ſea, a fiſhing. They have no ſet time for their meals, but eat as humour or appetite invites. It is remarkable that they carefully abſtain from certain proviſions; thus ſwine's fleſh and fiſh that have no ſcales, are forbidden to both ſexes. The eating of hares and rabbits is forbidden to the men, but not to the women.

women. The blood of beaſts, and the fleſh of the mole, are forbidden to the women, but not to the men. When among themſelves, they never eat ſalt, nor ſeaſon their proviſions with any kind of ſpice; yet they are fond of the high-ſeaſoned food of the Europeans, but find by experience that it is very prejudicial to them.

It has been aſſerted that all the Hottentots, without exception, devour the entrails of beaſts, with their filth and excrements, but half broiled; and that, whether ſound or rotten, they look upon them as the greateſt dainties; but Mr. Kolben, who took every opportunity to obſerve their manner of preparing and eating their food, always found, that, when they had entrails to eat, they turned and ſtripped them of their filth, waſhed them in clean water, and then boiled them in the blood of the beaſt, if they had any; if not, they gave them a thorough broiling. They are ſo naſty, indeed, in doing this, as to make an European abhor the victuals: but it is to be obſerved, that they uſually feed on roots, herbs, and fruits; and that their drink is milk and water.

Both the men and the women are ſo extravagantly fond of ſmoking tobacco, that, when they have no other means of procuring it, they will perform a hard day's work for half an ounce; and, when they get it, will hug it in a tranſport of joy. They will, therefore, never enter into the ſervice of an European, except tobacco be made a part of their wages; and they always inſiſt upon having a certain allowance of it every day; but, if the quantity agreed upon be only one day withheld from them, they become intractable, and, upon receiving the ſame treatment the day after, demand their other wages, they being very unwilling to ſtrike another ſtroke for ſuch a maſter.

ter. The Hottentots are likewiſe extremely fond of a plant called dacha, which they ſay baniſhes care and anxiety, like wine and brandy, inſpiring them with a thouſand delightful fancies; and this they frequently ſmoke, mixed with tobacco. They have alſo a root called kanna, which is ſo highly eſteemed for it's great virtues, that they almoſt adore it; and it's value is enhanced by it's ſcarcity. They conſider it as the greateſt chearer of the ſpirits, and the nobleſt reſtorative in the world; and any of them will run twenty miles, upon an errand, for a ſmall bit of it. We are informed by Mr. Kolben, that he diſtributed a bit of this root, no bigger than his finger, in ſmall chips, to ſeveral Hottentot families near which he reſided; and ſo gained their hearts by theſe little preſents, that, from that time till the time he left them, they ſought all opportunities to oblige him. Several authors have ſuppoſed this to be the ſame with the gingſeng of the Chineſe.

THE huts of the Hottentots are built with ſlender poles, bent like arches, and covered with mats, made of bull-ruſhes, dried in the ſun, and wrought ſo cloſe, that the work is not to be penetrated by the rain. Their form is oval, their longeſt diameter being generally about fourteen feet, and the ſhorteſt about ten. Thoſe of the better ſort have two coverings, the one made of mats, the other of ſkins, which not only keep out the rain, but the exceſſive heat. They have no light but what comes in at the entrance, which is an arch about three feet high and two broad; on the top whereof is hung a ſkin, to be taken up or let down at pleaſure: their furniture conſiſts of little more than their mantles, which ſerve them to lie on; ſome other ſkins of the wild beaſts they have killed, a pot to boil their meat in, one or two for drinking,

ſome

ſome earthen veſſels for milk and butter, their bows, arrows, and other arms, and perhaps ſome other trifling utenſils.

A NUMBER of theſe huts ranged in a circle, with an open area in the middle, makes one of their kraals or villages, each of which has a court for the adminiſtration of juſtice. This court conſiſts of the captain and the head of each family, who try and determine, by a majority of voices, both civil and criminal cauſes. Murder, adultery, and robbery, they puniſh with death; and, if the offender is convicted, he is executed on the ſpot, the captain giving him the firſt blow with his truncheon, and the reſt of the judges following his example till they have beaten him to death; which done, he is wrapped up in his mantle and buried. The family of the criminal however ſuffers nothing either in privilege or property, nor are they reproached with the memory of his crime, but treated with the ſame reſpect and diſtinction as if no ſuch misfortune had happened.

EACH village has it's phyſician, and ſometimes two, who are choſen by the inhabitants, and do their duty without fee or reward, the honour of the employment being thought a ſufficient recompence for their trouble. The Hottentots put great truſt in the abilities of theſe doctors, taking their medicines and ſubmitting to their operations with the utmoſt readineſs; and indeed their practice is attended with wonderful ſucceſs: But they are not every day called to it, the Hottentots being a ſtout hearty people, rarely troubled with diſtempers. If a patient dies under their hands, they always aſſert that their remedies have been rendered ineffectual by witchcraft, and this the people always believe.

THERE

THERE is another officer called ſuri, or maſter, who, like the phyſician, is elected by the people, and performs his office without revenue or perquiſite. Mr. Kolben calls him the prieſt, as having the ordering of the marriage and funeral ceremonies, and of all that relate to their offerings and worſhip. He is the operator in the cuſtom, that prevails among the Hottentots, of depriving the males of one teſticle, at eight, or twelve years of age, which he does with a great deal of ſkill and dexterity; and alſo dreſſes and ſews up the wound, after having depoſited, in the ſcrotum, a little ball of ſheep's fat, mixed with the powders of ſalutary herbs.

EVERY Hottentot nation has a chief, whoſe office is to command the army, and preſide in their councils; and, without his conſent, they neither make peace nor war. In theſe councils, which conſiſt of the captains of the ſeveral kraals, he ſits in the middle, and the captains round him in a circle; and ſince the eſtabliſhment of the Dutch at the Cape, he is diſtinguiſhed by a braſs crown, which he wears at the head of the army, in council, and on every ſolemn occaſion. This ornament the Dutch made a preſent of to the chief of every nation in alliance with them; whereas anciently they were only diſtinguiſhed by the ſuperior beauty of their apparel. The chief has nothing allowed him by the public, either for the reward of his labours, or the ſupport of his dignity; but his perſon is always held in great veneration. Under him, in time of war, the captains command the troops furniſhed by their reſpective kraals; and they are diſtinguiſhed by carrying a cane with a large braſs head, which is alſo preſented them by the Dutch.

WE

We have already mentioned their not being void of underſtanding, and their government is no ſmall proof of it. They are alſo expert in ſeveral arts, which ſhew a great degree of ingenuity; thus with ſurpriſing dexterity they cut out the hide of a beaſt, in an even ſtrap, many yards in length; and form handſome earthen pots of the mould of ant-hills, in which the bruiſed eggs form a ſurpriſing cement. Theſe pots are as black as jet, and of extraordinary firmneſs. The bone of a bird ſerves them for an awl; ſplit ſinews, or the veins of the back bones of cattle, dried in the ſun, ſerve them for thread. They have a method of tanning hides, and point their weapons with iron, which they even draw from the ore; for this purpoſe they dig a hole in a raiſed ground, and, at about a foot and a half on the deſcent from it, make another of leſs extent, to receive the melted iron, which is to run into it, through a channel made from the bottom of the upper hole. In the firſt hole they kindle a fire, and when the earth about it is ſufficiently heated, put in the iron ſtone, and make a large fire over it, which they ſupply with fuel, till the iron runs into the receiver. When the iron is cold, they take it out, heat it in other fires, and, laying it upon one ſtone, beat it with another, and thus form their weapons; after which they grind and poliſh them ſo neatly upon a flat ſtone, as to render them valuable both for their uſe and beauty. This ingenuity is not inconſiſtent with their habitual indolence; for a poor Hottentot, having made a ſet of arms for his own uſe, and another for ſale, to a rich one, by which means he procures two or three cows, can hardly be induced to apply himſelf again to the ſame labour.

THEIR dexterity in diſcharging an arrow, and throwing what they call the haſſagaye and rackum-ſtick, is very ſurpriſing. One of their arrows conſiſts of a ſmall tapering ſtick or cane of about a foot and a half in length, pointed with a ſmall thin piece of iron bearded, and joined to the ſtick or cane by a barrel. Their bows are made of olive or iron wood; and the ſtrings, of the ſinews or guts of beaſts, faſtened to a ſtrong wooden or iron hook at each end of the bow. The quiver is a long narrow bag, made of the ſkin of an ox, elk, or elephant, and ſlung over the ſhoulder by a ſtrap faſtened to it; but to the upper end of the quiver is fixed a hook, on which the bow is hung, when they go to war, or to the chace. The haſſagaye is a kind of a half pike; the ſhaft is a taper ſtick of the length and thickneſs of a rake handle, armed at the thickeſt end with a little thin iron plate, tapering to a point, and very ſharp on the edges. The rackum-ſtick is a kind of dart, little more than a foot long, made of hard wood. In the uſe of theſe weapons they ſhew ſuch quickneſs of the eye, and ſureneſs of hand, as no people upon earth, perhaps, beſides themſelves, can boaſt. If a Hottentot ſees a hare, deer, or wild goat, within thirty or forty yards of him, away flies the rackum-ſtick, and down falls the animal. They are no leſs expert in the uſe of the bow and arrow; for, if there be no wind, they will hit a mark of the ſize of a ſilver penny, at a conſiderable diſtance. They are equally expert in ſlinging a ſtone, and throwing the haſſagaye. In all theſe caſes, inſtead of ſtanding ſtill to take their aim, they ſkip from ſide to ſide, and brandiſh and whirl the weapon about in ſuch a manner, that the whole ſeems an idle flouriſh; but, on a ſudden, away

away it flies to the mark. In ſhort, their dexterity, on theſe occaſions, is inconceivable.

WHEN a whole village are out upon the chaſe, and diſcovers a wild beaſt of a conſiderable ſize, they endeavour to ſurround him, which they generally, do in a ſhort time, even though the beaſt takes to his heels. If they thus encompaſs an elephant or a rhinoceros, they attack him with haſſagayes, the hardneſs and thickneſs of his hide being proof againſt a ſhower of arrows. If they do not lay him dead upon the ſpot, and he is able to return the attack, they form as large a ring as they can make, ſo as to reach him with their haſſagayes. The creature, being wounded, runs with great noiſe and fury at the perſons who threw the weapons. Then others attacks him in the rear. He turns about to atack the laſt aſſailants, and is again attacked in the rear. Again he turns about, and is again attacked. The haſſagayes multiply upon his body. He roars, tears up the ground, and has ſometimes as it were a foreſt of haſſagayes upon his back before he falls.

WHEN a lion, tyger, or leopard, is thus encompaſſed, they attack him both with haſſagayes and arrows. With flaming eyes and the wildeſt rage he flies upon thoſe who diſcharged them. He is nimble, they are nimbler, and avoid him with aſtoniſhing dexterity, till they are relieved by others. He leaps towards one ſo quick, and, as you would think, with ſo ſure a paw, that you ſhudder for the fellow, expecting to ſee him in an inſtant torn to pieces; but the man in danger, leaps away in the twinkling of an eye, and the beaſt ſpends all his rage upon the ground. He turns and leaps towards another, and another, and another; but ſtill in vain: they avoid him with the quickneſs of thought, and ſtill he fights only with the air. All

this time the arrows and haſſagayes are ſhowering upon him in the rear. He grows mad with pain, and, running and leaping from one party of his enemies to another, and tumbling from time to time to break the arrows and haſſagayes that are faſtened in him, he foams, yells, and roars in the moſt terrible manner. Nothing in the world can be more admirable than the activity and addreſs with which the Hottentots eſcape the paws of the beaſt, and the incredible ſpeed and reſolution with which they relieve each other. If the beaſt is not quickly ſlain, he is ſoon convinced that there is no dealing with ſo nimble an enemy; and then he makes off with his utmoſt ſpeed; but, having by this time a multitude of arrows and haſſagayes on his back, ſome of which are commonly poiſoned, he ſoon falls.

AN unnatural cuſtom prevails among the Hottentots, that when a woman bears twins, if they are both girls, ſhe expoſes one, and nurſes the other; and, if ſhe have a boy and girl, the boy is brought up, and the girl expoſed; but, if they have two ſons at a birth, they preſerve both, and make great feaſting and merriment on that occaſion. The child to be expoſed is either ſhut up in ſome cave, left in ſome thicket, or tied to a tree, where it is either ſtarved to death, or devoured by wild beaſts: And the pretence for this barbarous cuſtom is either poverty, or that the woman has not milk enough for both the children.

THE barbarous and unnatural cuſtom of expoſing infants ſtill alſo ſubſiſts among the Chineſe, who pride themſelves on their politeneſs, as it did formerly among the ancient Greeks and Romans; and it's abolition is one of the many happy effects that has been produced by the Chriſtian Religion humaniſing the mind, and adding vigour to all it's ender and humane ſenſations.

To

To conclude this account of the Hottentots, we ſhall only add another of their cuſtoms equally cruel with the former, viz. that of expoſing their aged parents. When a father of a family is become quite ſuperannuated and uſeleſs, he is obliged, it ſeems, to reſign his ſtock of cattle, and whatever elſe he has in the world, to his eldeſt ſon, or to his next male heir: Which done, the heir erects a tent or hut in ſome unfrequented place, a good diſtance from the kraal he belongs to; and, having aſſembled the men of the kraal, he acquaints them with the weak condition of the old man, deſiring their conſent to expoſe him in the diſtant hut built for that purpoſe, which they ſeldom or never refuſe. A day being accordingly appointed to convey the poor creature to his laſt abode, the heir kills an ox, and two or three ſheep, and invites the whole kraal to feaſt and be merry with them; and, when the entertainment is over, the old man is laid upon an ox, and carried to the hut, accompanied by moſt of the neighbours, where they ſhut him up, and leave him to periſh. In the ſame manner they deal with a ſuperannuated mother or female relation; and the reaſon they aſſign for this ſhocking cuſtom is, that it would be more barbarous to ſuffer an old creature to languiſh out a miſerable life, and be many years a dying, than to bring his miſery to a ſpeedy concluſion; and that it is out of extreme tenderneſs they put an end to the lives of the poor wretches in the manner above related.

CHAP. VII.

Of the AFRICAN ISLANDS.

THE principal iſlands of Africa are Madagaſcar, the iſland of Bourbon, that of Prince Maurice, the iſlands of Comorro, and Zocotara, all which lie to the eaſtward of the continent, in the Indian ocean. On the ſouth-weſt lie the iſlands of St. Helena, Aſcenſion, St. Matthew, Annabon, St. Thomas, and Prince's iſland; and on the north-weſt lie the Cape de Verd iſlands, the Canaries, the Madeiras, and the Azores; though theſe laſt ſeem more properly to belong to Europe, and ſome geographers place them among the iſlands of America.—Madagaſcar is one of the largeſt iſlands hitherto known in the world, it being about eight hundred miles in length, and in ſome parts above two hundred in breadth. At a diſtance from the ſea, the country is full of high and ſteep mountains, but it abounds nevertheleſs with ſpacious plains, extraordinary good paſtures, rivers, and lakes, ſprings of excellent water, and woods that wear a perpetual verdure.—The iſle of Bourbon belongs to the French, where they have three pretty conſiderable towns, with a governor and ſeveral magiſtrates. It is a fine fruitful iſland, and is the place where the French Eaſt-India ſhips uſually put in for refreſhments. — Mauritius, or Prince Maurice's iſland, is poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who found it uninhabited, but have now a fort and garriſon there, and have ſtocked the country with cattle and poultry. Here the Hollanders touch in their paſſage from the Cape to Batavia.—The other iſlands on the eaſt of Africa are

are not very remarkable; nor are thoſe on the ſouth-weſt, except St. Helena, which belongs to our Eaſt-India Company, and is well fortified at the landing-places, it being of great benefit to their ſhips, which uſually call there for refreſhment, both in their paſſage to India, and their return to Europe. This iſland on every ſide appears to be a hard barren rock, but on the top it is covered with a fine earth twelve or eighteen inches deep, which produces plenty of graſs, herbs, roots, &c. and is very proper for wheat and other grain, but their corn is moſtly devoured by rats and other vermin before it comes to maturity. The country, beyond the aſcent of the rock, is prettily diverſified with riſing hills and valleys, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and kitchen-gardens, amongſt which the houſes of the inhabitants are interſperſed. Their vineyards of late years have been conſiderably improved, ſome French refugees having ſettled in the iſland, who are ſkilled in that branch of huſbandry. They have plenty of black cattle, hogs, goats, turkeys, and all ſorts of poultry; and they are not only bleſſed with the neceſſaries of life, but with a continued ſtate of health to enjoy them, the air being uſually ſerene and clear, the iſland frequently refreſhed with cooling ſhowers and the ſea-breezes, and themſelves almoſt conſtantly employed in the wholeſome exerciſes of agriculture and gardening.—The other iſlands on the weſtern ſide of Africa are not very conſiderable, till we come to thoſe of Cape de Verd, which belong to the Portugueſe. The principal of them is St. Jago, where our Eaſt-India ſhips outward bound are often ſupplied with water and freſh proviſions, the iſland abounding with hogs, goats, and poultry. From ſome of theſe iſlands, particularly Mayo,

the Engliſh export great quantities of ſalt to America.—The Canary iſlands, which are ſubject to the crown of Spain, are chiefly famous for their excellent wines; and the ſame may be ſaid of the Madeiras, which belong to the Portugueſe.—Several of the Azores, which likewiſe belong to Portugal, are very fertile, pleaſant, and healthy, and have an excellent breed of cattle; but they are much ſubject to earthquakes and fiery eruptions*.

THUS much may ſuffice for a general account of the African iſlands; but they afford us ſome natural curioſities, which require a more particular deſcription; and firſt

The PIKE of TENERIFFE.

TENERIFFE is one of the Canary iſlands, famous for it's lofty mountain called the Pike or Peak, which riſes like a ſugar-loaf in the middle of the iſland, and may be ſeen at ſea in clear weather at a hundred and twenty miles diſtance. Some authors make the height of this mountain fifteen miles, and others three or four times that number, computing undoubtedly the winding aſcent; but Varenius ſays it is four miles five furlongs perpendicular, and Raimondus reckons it three miles only. Which of theſe accounts is neareſt the truth we cannot determine, but perhaps it is that of Varenius. We may ſafely venture to ſay that the Pike is one of the higheſt mountains in the world; but the beſt account of it is that given by ſeveral Engliſh merchants and

* See an account of iſlands raiſed by ſubterraneous fires, in Vol. III. chap. 12.

others

others who had the curioſity to climb to the top of it, which we find in the hiſtory of the Royal-Society of London, publiſhed by Dr. Sprat, late biſhop of Rocheſter; whereof the following is an extract.

THEY ſet out from Oratavia, a ſea-port on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and paſſed over ſeveral bare mountains and ſandy places, till they came to the foot of the Pike, where lies a vaſt number of huge ſtones, that ſeem to have fallen down from above. After they had aſcended about a mile on horſeback, they were obliged to alight and climb the hill on foot; and, having traverſed a ſteep black rock about a mile higher, they found the top of it as flat as a pavement. Here the air was very cold after ſun-ſet, and they were forced to keep great fires all night. The next morning they proceeded to that part of the mountain called the Sugar-Loaf, which being ſteep, and the ſoil a deep white ſand, it was very difficult travelling, though they were provided with ſhoes that had ſoles a finger broader than the upper-leather, to facilitate the paſſage. When they came near the top of the Pike they found a ſtrong wind, and a continual breathing of a hot ſulphureous vapour iſſued from the hill, which ſcorched their faces, and made them ſore. On the top there was a large baſon or pit, ſhaped like an inverted cone, which was of conſiderable depth, and about a muſket-ſhot over. The inſide of this cavity, or caldron, (as it is called) is covered with ſmall looſe ſtones mixed with ſand and ſulphur, from whence iſſued a hot ſuffocating ſteam; and, the footing being ſo bad, they did not deſcend into the pit above four or five yards, though ſome have ventured to the bottom. The brim of this pit, on which they ſtood, was not above a yard broad; and from

hence they could clearly ſee the Grand Canary Palma, Gomera, and even Ferro, which is twenty leagues diſtant. As ſoon as the ſun appears, the ſhadow of the Pike ſeems to cover not only this and the Great Canary iſland, but even the ſea to the very horizon, where it looks as if, being limited, it turned up into the air.

THE ſame gentlemen relate, that there was a great deal of ſnow and ice about two thirds of the way up, but at the top there was none at all; which doubtleſs is owing to the hot ſteam proceeding from the caldron and the upper parts of the mountain. They mention a remarkable cave, ten yards deep and fifteen broad, in ſhape like an oven or cupola, with a hole at the top, near eight yards over, through which their ſervants let them down by a rope till they came to a bank of ſnow. At the bottom of the cave there is a round well of water, exactly underneath the opening above, the ſurface whereof is about a yard lower than the ſnow, and it's depth about ſix fathoms. This is not ſuppoſed to be a ſpring, but only ſnow blown in and diſſolved, or water that drops from the rocks, and is there collected. About the ſides and roof of this grotto there were iſicles hanging down to the ſnow.—They met with no trees or ſhrubs in their paſſage but pines, and among the white ſands a buſhy plant like broom.

A PHYSICIAN, who lived upon the iſland of Teneriffe twenty years, gives it as his opinion, that the whole iſland, being impregnated with brimſtone, formerly took fire, by the violence of which great part of it was blown up, there appearing about the iſland ſeveral mountains of huge calcined ſtones, that muſt have had their origin from ſuch ſubterraneous commotions. He farther ſuppoſes, that the greateſt quantity of ſulphur

phur lying about the center of the iſland, the ſhock was there the moſt violent, and occaſioned the riſing of the Pike to it's preſent prodigious height; and this appears from the vaſt number of calcined rocks that lie at the bottom of it for three or four miles round. From the Pike to the ſouth weſt as far almoſt as the ſhore, are ſtill to be ſeen the tracks of the rivers of brimſtone and melted ore which ran that way, and have ſo ruined the ſoil where they flowed, that broom is now it's only production.— The doctor adds, that in the ſouth-weſt part of the iſland there are high mountains of a bluiſh earth, and ſtones with a ruſt on them like that of copper and vitriol, and that there are ſeveral ſprings of vitriolic water.

IN the year 1704, there happened a moſt dreadful earthquake in the iſland of Teneriffe, which began the 24th of December, and increaſed till the 31ſt, when the earth opened, and two volcano's were formed, which caſt up ſo many burning ſtones as made two conſiderable mountains; and the combuſtible matter thrown up by theſe new volcanos kindled above fifty fires in the neighbouring places. On the 5th of January the air was darkened with aſhes and ſmoke, the terror increaſed, and towards the evening the country was all in a flame for above a league in extent. This was the effect of another volcano, which had broke out towards Oratavia, with at leaſt thirty mouths within the circumference of a quarter of a league. In a word whole towns were ſwallowed up or overturned, many thouſands of people loſt their lives, and the torrents of ſulphur and metallic matter thrown out by theſe volcanos converted a great part of a fruitful country into a barren deſert.

FOSSILS.

UNDER this head we ſhall venture to place that fragrant drug called ambergriſe, though it be a ſubſtance whoſe nature and origin have been as differently gueſſed at, as any thing in natural hiſtory. But it is now generally agreed by the moſt learned naturaliſts that it is a bitumen iſſuing out of the earth, at firſt of a liquid or at leaſt a viſcid conſiſtence, but afterwards condenſed and hardened. That ambergriſe was once ſoft and fluid is evinced by the ſame proof that we have of the common amber having been ſo; which is, that it frequently contains extraneous bodies immerſed in it's moſt ſolid maſſes, which could not have been admitted there but when it was in a ſoft or fluid ſtate. Small ſhells, little pebbles, and grains of ſand are often found in it, and in general ſuch bodies as it may be naturally ſuppoſed to pick up at the bottom of the ſea; though there are ſome which one would wonder how it ſhould get, ſuch as pieces of honey-comb, and the like. Great quantities of it are found thrown up by the ſea on the coaſt of Madagaſcar, and ſome other African iſlands, as well as on the continent. The ſeas about ſeveral of the Indian Iſlands abound with it; and it is ſaid to be met with ſometimes on the northern coaſt of Great-Britain and Ireland.

THIS valuable bitumen is of a looſe texture, remarkably light, of a rugged unequal ſurface, ſoft and fatty like ſuet or tallow to the touch, of a high-perfumed ſmell, and extremely various in ſhape and ſize. It is found in maſſes from an ounce in weight to thirty or forty pounds, and even

even much larger *, but ſuch pieces are very rare, it's moſt uſual ſtandard being from four to ten ounces. It's natural colour, when moſt pure and perfect, is a pale grey; but the whitiſh particles are ſometimes apt to waſh off, and leave the black ones alone, which are of a firmer ſtructure and and leſs ſcented. This has occaſioned ambergriſe to be diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, aſh-coloured and black, of which the latter is much leſs valuable. It is of great uſe amongſt perfumers, and is recommended by phyſicians as proper to raiſe the drooping ſpirits, and to accelerate their motions. In the Eaſtern nations it is in high repute, and continually given as a cordial, a ſtrengthener, and a prolonger of life.

HERE we might enumerate many other foſſils belonging to the African iſlands, but in general they are ſuch as are found upon the continent, or have been ſufficiently ſpoken of already; and the ſame may be ſaid of their animals, but two or three of their vegetable productions deſerve our notice.

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* We have various inſtances in authors of huge pieces of ambergriſe, but we need only mention one that is recent and unqueſtionable, viz. that large lump which the Dutch Eaſt-India company bought in 1693 of the king of Tidore for eleven thouſand dollars. It weighed a hundred and eighty-two pounds, was two feet two inches long, and five feet eight inches round in the thickeſt part. The duke of Tuſcany offered fifty thouſand crowns for this curioſity, which Nicolaus Chevalier has fully deſcribed in a ſmall treatiſe publiſhed at Amſterdam in the year 1700.

VEGETABLES.

VEGETABLES.

EBONY, though not peculiar to Madagaſcar, grows plentifully in that iſland. This is a fine wood uſed in moſaic and inlaid works, toys, &c. being very hard heavy, and ſuſceptible of a beautiful poliſh. There are divers kinds of ebony, black, red, and green, all of them the product of Madagaſcar; though Maurice iſland, the iſle of Bourbon, and ſome of the American iſlands, furniſh part of the ebonies uſed in Europe. Authors and travellers give a different account of the tree that yields black ebony, but the moſt authentic is that of M. Flacourt, who reſided many years in Madagaſcar as governor of the iſland. He aſſures us it grows very high and thick, has a black bark, and it's leaves are of a deep green colour, reſembling thoſe of our myrtle. Tavernier ſays, the iſlanders bury their trees when cut down, to make them the blacker. Ebony is much leſs uſed amongſt us than anciently, ſince the diſcovery of ſo many ways of giving other hard woods a black colour.

THERE is a large tree growing in Madagaſcar in great abundance, from whoſe trunk diſtils a reſinous gum called tacamahaca, of which there are two ſorts, the one oozing from the tree ſpontaneouſly, the other by making inciſions. It is not unlike our poplar-tree, only bigger and taller; it's leaves are ſmall and green, it's fruit red, about the ſize of a walnut, exceedingly reſinous, and containing a ſtone like our peaches. The gum is found good to digeſt and reſolve tumours; and being applied in form of a plaiſter to the temples and, nape of the neck, it aſſuages pains of the head, repreſſes defluxions of rheum, and abates

abates inflammations of the eyes. It is alſo good againſt the tooth-ach, and in arthritic pains it is uſed externally with ſucceſs.

IN the Cape de Verd iſlands there grows a remarkable fruit, called by the Engliſh the cuſtard-apple, which is as big as a pomegranate, and much of the ſame colour. It's outſide ſhell or rind is beſet round with ſmall regular knobs or riſings, and the inſide is full of a white pulp, ſweet and very pleaſant, much reſembling a cuſtard both in colour and taſte; and in the middle there are a few ſmall black ſtones or kernels. The tree that bears this fruit has long ſlender branches, at the extremity whereof the apples grow; but a large tree ſeldom produces above twenty or thirty.

HAVING thus finiſhed our ſurvey of Africa and it's iſlands, we muſt now croſs the ocean, and take a view of the American continent.

PART

PART IV.

OF

AMERICA.

CHAP. I.

Of SOUTH AMERICA.

BY inſpecting a map of America it appears that the north and ſouth parts of that vaſt continent are joined together by a narrow neck of land called the iſthmus of Darien or Panama, which is about ſixty miles over from ſea to ſea, between Panama and Porto Bello: ſo that, when we divide America into north and ſouth, it muſt not be underſtood that the equator makes this diviſion, but the ſaid iſthmus; for what is denominated South America extends at leaſt twelve degrees to the northward of the equator.

THE whole length of America, from the moſt northern part of it yet diſcovered to the ſtreights of Magellan, on the ſouth, is about eight thouſand miles in a direct line; but, as to it's breadth, it is quite irregular, being in ſome places about three thouſand ſix hundred miles, and not above ſixty or ſeventy in the narrow iſthmus abovementioned.

BY the new diſcoveries made by the Ruſſians, it has been found, that on the north, America extends very near the northern coaſt of Siberia, croſſing the Pacific ocean, which alſo bounds the weſt of that continent; on the north it's limits are unknown; on the eaſt it is divided by the great Atlantic ocean from Europe and Africa; and, on the ſouth, by the ſtreights of Magellan, which ſeparate it from Terra del Fuego, on the ſouth part of which is Cape Horn, reckoned the utmoſt verge of America. Thus this new world, as it is called, extends from the frozen regions of the north, where it's limits are ſecured from the obſervation of the curious Europeans, by impenetrable barriers of ice, through an extenſive country, in which ſucceſſively paſs all the climates to be found in the other regions of the earth, on either ſide of the equator; till on the ſouth you reach the ſnowy rocks of Terra del Fuego. It is extremely remarkable that the climates of North America are many degrees colder than thoſe in the countries within the ſame latitudes in Europe. Thus the greateſt part of the frozen country of New-foundland, the bay of St. Laurence and Cape Breton, where the cold is ſo ſevere in winter, as to freeze that great bay, and render navigation impracticable, lie oppoſite the weſtern coaſt of France: Nova Scotia and New-England, where the froſts of winter are extremely ſharp, and laſt a long time, are in the ſame latitude with the bay of Biſcay, which waſhes the coaſts of France and Spain.

INDEED, with reſpect to the climates of America, there are ſeveral very extraordinary particulars; ſince, in ſome parts, nothing on the earth can be more agreeable and enchanting, while, in other places, nothing can be more dreadful to human nature; America containing all that is agreeable

agreeable and delightful in the other parts of the earth, with all that is dreadful and moſt ſhocking to the mind. Under the equator, where one would imagine the earth to be ſcorched up with the too ardent rays of the ſun, are countries that enjoy all the advantages of a perpetual ſpring; fields conſtantly covered with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the moſt lively colours, and a mild climate, free from the extremes of heat and cold; where the winds, which are healthy, never blow with violence, and where rain, ſnow, hail, thunder, and lightning, are unknown; all this is true, with reſpect to the audience of Lima in Peru; but at the ſame time it is ſubject to the moſt dreadful earthquakes, as are other parts to the moſt terrible volcanoes. Under the equinoctial, where the heat, as before obſerved, might be thought inſupportable, are mountains covered with everlaſting ice and ſnow, where the cold is equal to that of the frozen regions in the extremities of the north; and, while Greenland ſmiles with verdure in the midſt of ſummer, theſe mountains, within the tropics, have their tops ſo high above the clouds, as to experience no remiſſion from the moſt piercing cold, and the ſharpeſt froſts. Yet the height of ſnow on theſe lofty mountains diffuſe a thouſand advantages to the neighbouring plains, and moderate the heat of countries of great extent; the winds blowing over them being cooled and rendered more fit for reſpiration. But of theſe phænomena we ſhall be more particular in giving ſome account of the mountains of South America.

BUT, while we are mentioning the advantages and diſadvantages of the climate in general, it will not perhaps, be improper to mention the inclemency of the air of Porto-bello, where many circumſtances

circumſtances contribute to render it worſe than any other place on the whole earth. The heat is there exceſſive, it being augmented by the ſituation of the town, which is ſurrounded with mountains, without any interval to admit refreſhing winds. The trees, on their ſummits, ſtand ſo thick as to prevent the earth drying under their branches; hence ariſe copious exhalations, which form large clouds that fall in violent torrents of rain; but this is no ſooner over, than the ſun breaking forth afreſh, ſhines with his former ſplendor; yet has ſcarce dried the ſurface of the ground, not covered by the trees, than that orb is again concealed, and freſh ſhowers fall. Theſe torrents of rain, which, from their ſuddenneſs and impetuoſity, ſeem to threaten a ſecond deluge, are accompanied with ſuch dreadful tempeſts of thunder and lightning, as are ſufficient to damp the courage of the moſt reſolute ſtranger; and this dreadful noiſe is prolonged by the echoes from the caverns of the mountains, and the diſmal howlings and ſhrieks of the many kinds of monkies, which dwell in their foreſts. Snakes here are extremely numerous, and innumerable toads ſwarm, not only in the damp and marſhy places, as in other countries, but even in the ſtreets, courts of houſes, and all open places. Thus, when it has rained in the night, the ſtreets and ſquares in the morning, ſeem paved with them; ſo that you cannot ſtep without treading on them, which is ſometimes productive of troubleſome bites; for, beſides their poiſon, they are ſo large, that their teeth are ſeverely felt. They are generally about ſix inches long, and nothing can be imagined more diſmal, than their crokings during the night, in all parts of the town, the woods, and caverns in the mountains. But, what is ſtill worſe, the air is ſo unhealthy,

healthy, that the galleons or other European ſhips, which ſtay here any time, ſeldom leave it, without burying half, or, at leaſt, one-third of their men: hence it has been juſtly termed the grave of the Spaniards. It is there univerſally aſſerted, that the animals brought from other climates, on their arrival, immediately ceaſe to propagate their ſpecies; horſes and aſſes there never breed; the hens brought from Panama or Carthagena, on their arrival, lay no more eggs; and horned cattle, though there is plenty of paſture, loſe their fleſh ſo as not to be eatable.

A COUNTRY of ſuch vaſt extent, not only on each ſide of the equator, but reaching ſo far beyond each of the tropics, muſt of neceſſity be ſuppoſed to have as great a variety of ſoils, as it has of climates; ſome countries conſiſt of the moſt beautiful lawns, paſtures, fields, and meadows, watered with fine ſtreams, ſhaded with groves, and variegated with hills and vallies; while others only preſent to the eye dreadful rocks, dreary deſerts, mountains of a ſtupendous height, foreſts of an amazing extent, and the moſt aſtoniſhing ſcenes of wild, rude, and uncultivated nature. Several of the Spaniſh plantations, in particular, are wonderfully rich and fruitful, abounding in corn, the moſt beautiful paſtures, trees that afford the richeſt fruit, ſhade, and ornament; odoriferous ſhrubs, medicinal plants, woods, and roots, with flowers that delight the ſenſes; with the richeſt minerals and precious ſtones. In ſhort, almoſt every thing, which nature produces in any quarter of the globe, may here be found growing ſpontaneouſly, or raiſed by labour, in it's greateſt perfection; beſides which, it has an almoſt infinite variety of others, peculiar to itſelf, which will not grow, or, at leaſt, thrive, in an equal manner, in any other country.

THE

THE South part of America, which we are now going to ſurvey, comprehends, 1. Braſil, belonging to the Portugueſe; 2. Paraguay, ſubject to Spain; 3. Terra Magellanica, poſſeſſed by the natives, and to us little known; 4. Chili, belonging to Spain; 5. Peru, ſubject to the ſame crown; 6. The inland country of the Amazons, unconquered and inhabited by the natives; 7. Guiana, where the Europeans have a few ſettlements on the coaſt; and, 8. Terra Firma, or the Spaniſh Main.—But it is time to come to particulars, and ſee what is moſt curious and remarkable in theſe countries, ſo long hid from the knowledge of the inhabitants of the reſt of the globe.

MOUNTAINS, SPRINGS, VOLCANOES, EARTHQUAKES, RIVERS, BRIDGES, &c.

IT is generally allowed, that the mountains of South America are not to be paralleled in any other part of the world, for their ſurpriſing height and extent; witneſs that prodigious chain of them called the Andes, which begins in the moſt northern part of Peru, and extends itſelf quite to the Streights of Magellan, a length of between three and four thouſand miles. Acoſta relates, that he once aſcended one of the higheſt of theſe mountains in Peru, called Pariacaca; and that he went prepared according to the beſt inſtructions he could get, with ſeveral more who had the like curioſity; but, notwithſtanding all his precaution, when he came near the top he was ſeized with ſuch pains that he thought he ſhould have fallen to the ground; and, the reſt of the company being under the like diſorder, they all made haſte down as faſt as they could, without waiting for one another. They were all taken with violent reachings

to

to vomit, and not only brought up green phlegm and choler, but a great deal of blood. This laſted for three or four hours, till they had deſcended to the lower part of the mountain; and ſome of them purged violently: But generally the ſickneſs goes off before they get to the bottom, and is attended with no ill conſequences.

PEOPLE who paſs this ridge of mountains in any part of them, for upwards of five hundred leagues, are affected in the like manner, but more in ſome places than in others. Acoſta had paſſed the Andes at four other different places, and always felt the like diſorder, but not ſo much as at Pariacaca; and the beſt remedy they found againſt it was to ſtop their mouths, noſes, and ears as much as poſſible; the air being ſo ſubtile and piercing, that it affects the entrails both of men and beaſts. This indeed is no wonder, ſince the height of the Andes (according to Acoſta) is ſuch, that the Alps, in compariſon to them, ſeem but as ordinary houſes in regard to lofty towers. Hence our author concluded, that the air on the top of theſe mountains was too pure and ſubtile for animals to breathe in, they requiring a groſſer medium *; and this, he ſuppoſed, occaſioned that diſorder in the ſtomach.

As

* As too groſs, ſo too rare an air is unfit for reſpiration, as appears not only from experiments made by the air-pump, but from the accounts of thoſe who have been on the tops of very lofty mountains, where the air is conſiderably rarefied. An eccleſiaſtical perſon, who had viſited the high mountains of Armenia, told Mr. Boyle, that, whilſt he was on the upper part of them he was forced to fetch his breath oftener than uſual; and, taking notice of it when he came down, the people told him it was what they themſelves had frequently experienced. The ſame eccleſiaſtic made the like obſervation

As to the reachings and vomitings complained of by thoſe who paſs Andes in Peru, it is remarkable that thoſe who travel over that high chain of them in Chili called the Cordillera, are not affected with ſuch diſorders, but only with a difficulty of breathing, which is perceived more or leſs on the tops of all high mountains: ſo that in Peru there may poſſibly be a concurrence of ſome other cauſes beſides the thinneſs of the air, to produce the above effects, ſince the mountains of Chili are conſiderably higher, and conſequently the air at the top of them more rarefied.

In order to give a more perfect idea of the climate on the top of theſe mountains, we ſhall give ſome account of that which prevailed on Pichincha, when the mathematicians, ſent thither by the kings of France and Spain, were ſtationed there, in order to make obſervations on the figure of the earth. It ought to be obſerved, that this mountain is almoſt directly under the equinoctial, and that though it is famous for it's great height, it is twelve hundred and ſeventy-eight yards in a perpendicular line, lower than the mountain of Cotopaxi; but it will be impoſſible for the reader to conceive the comparative coldneſs of the ſummit of the laſt mentioned mountain, from that felt on this, ſince it muſt exceed every idea that can be formed in the human mind, though both are ſituated in the midſt of the torrid zone.

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obſervation on the top of a mountain in the Cevennes; and a curious traveller, on one of the of higheſt ridges of the Pyrenees, called Pic de Midi, found the ſame inconvenience, he and his company being obliged to breathe ſhorter and oftener than in the lower air. — See Derham's Phyſico-Theology, p. 6. and Phil. Tranſ. No. 63.

PINCHINCHA was formerly a volcano, but the mouth, on one of it's ſides, is at preſent covered with ſand and calcined matter, and neither fire nor ſmoke is ſeen to iſſue from it. Our learned author Don George Juan de Ulloa obſerves, that he found the cold on it's top extremely intenſe, the wind violent; and they were frequently involved in ſo thick a fog, or, in other words, a cloud, that an object at ſix or eight paces diſtance was ſcarcely diſcernible. The air grew clear, by the clouds deſcending nearer to the ſurface of the earth, when they, on all ſides, ſurrounded the mountain to a vaſt diſtance, repreſenting the ſea with their rock, ſtanding like an iſland in the center. When this happened, they heard the dreadful noiſe of the tempeſts, that diſcharged themſelves on the city of Quito, and the neighbouring country. Looking down, they ſaw the lightning iſſue from the clouds, and heard the thunder roll far beneath them. While the lower parts were involved in thunder and rain, they enjoyed a delightful ſerenity; the wind was abated, the ſky clear, and the inlivening rays of the ſun moderated the ſeverity of the cold. But, when the clouds roſe, their thickneſs rendered reſpiration difficult; ſnow and hail fell continually, and the wind returned with all it's violence; ſo that it was impoſſible to overcome intirely the fear of being, together with their hut, blown down the precipice, or of being buried in it, by the daily accumulations of ice and ſnow. Their fears were likewiſe increaſed by the fall of enormous fragments of rocks. Though the ſmalleſt crevice, viſible in their hut, was ſtopped, the wind was ſo piercing, that it penetrated through; and, though the hut was ſmall, crowded with inhabitants, and had ſeveral lamps conſtantly burning, the cold was ſo great, that every perſon

perſon was obliged to have a chafing-diſh of coals, and ſeveral men were conſtantly employed every morning to remove the ſnow which fell in the night. By the ſeverity of this cold, their feet were ſwelled, and grew ſo tender, that they could not walk without extreme pain; their hands were covered with chilblains, and their lips ſo ſwelled and chopped, that every motion, in ſpeaking, made them bleed *.

FROM barometrical experiments made on the mountain Cotopaxi, it appears that it's ſummit is elevated ſix thouſand two hundred and fifty-two yards above the ſurface of the ſea, ſomething above three geographical miles, which greatly exceeds the height of any other mountain in the known world. Cotopaxi became a volcano at the firſt arrival of the Spaniards in this country, and a new eruption happened in 1743, which had been for ſome days preceded by a continual rumbling in it's bowels: after which an aperture was made in it's ſummit, and likewiſe three others, near the middle of it's declivity, at that period buried under prodigious maſſes of ſnow. The ignited ſubſtances ejected on that occaſion, mixed with a vaſt quantity of ſnow and ice, melting amidſt the flames, were carried down with ſuch

* M. Bouguer, who was engaged in the ſame expedition as the laſt mentioned gentleman, ſays, "There is in all this "range of mountains, as far as I have travelled, a conſtant "inferior boundary, beyond which the ſnow never melts; "this boundary, in the midſt of the torrid zone, I found "to be two thouſand four hundred and thirty-four fathoms "above the level of the South Sea. The ſnow, indeed, falls "much lower, but then it is ſubject to be melted the very "ſame day; whereas, above that, it preſerves itſelf,"

"The gather'd winter of a thouſand years."

amazing rapidity, that, in an inſtant, the plain from Callao to Latacunga was overflowed, the houſes of the poor inhabitants were borne down, and great numbers of them periſhed. The river of Latacunga was the canal of this dreadful flood, till, being too ſmall for receiving the prodigious current, it overflowed the adjacent country, carried away all the buildings within it's reach, and rendered the land, near the town of the ſame name, like a vaſt lake. The inhabitants retired to a ſpot of higher ground behind the town, while thoſe parts of it that ſtood within the limits of the current, were intirely deſtroyed. During three days the volcano ejected cinders, while torrents of melted ice and ſnow poured down it's ſides. The fire laſted ſeveral days longer, and was accompanied with terrible roarings of the wind, ruſhing through the mouth of the volcano. At laſt all was quiet, and neither fire nor ſmoke were to be ſeen. But, in May 1744, the flames forced a paſſage through ſeveral other parts on the ſides of the mountain; ſo that in, clear nights, the flames, being reflected by the tranſparent ice, formed a very grand and beautiful illumination. But, on the thirteenth of November following, it ejected ſuch prodigious quantities of fire and ignited ſubſtances, that an inundation, equal to the former, ſoon enſued; and the inhabitants of the town of Latacunga, for ſome time, gave themſelves over for loſt.

WE are told that there are fiery meteors about theſe mountains, ſometimes ſo high in the air, as to reſemble ſtars, and ſometimes ſo low, as to frighten the mules, by buzzing about their ears and feet. But a phænomenon, which in this climate muſt appear very extraordinary, is ſaid by M. Bouguer to happen almoſt every day on the

tops

tops of theſe mountains; though theſe gentlemen were the firſt who ever mentioned them in Europe. The firſt time our authors obſerved it was, when they were on the ſummit of Pambamorea, a mountain not ſo high as Pichincha. A cloud, in which they were involved at break of day, diſſipating, they ſaw the riſing ſun extremely ſplendid, and the cloud paſſed on the other ſide, oppoſite to the ſun, where it appeared very thin, and was about twenty yards diſtant from the place where they were ſtanding, when each of them ſaw in it, as in a looking-glaſs, his own image, and, what appeared ſtill more extraordinary, the head was encompaſſed with a glory, like that ſeen round the heads of ſaints in pictures; each head being, as it were, the centre of three contentric iriſis of very lively colours, and each with the ſame varieties as a rainbow, the red being outward; the laſt or moſt external colours of one touched the firſt of the following; and, at ſome diſtance from them all, was a fourth arch, intirely white. Theſe were perpendicular to the horizon; and, as the perſon moved, the phænomenon moved alſo. But, what was very extraordinary, though there were ſix or ſeven perſons, each could ſee none but his own ſhadow, becauſe the cloud had an uneven ſurface. The diameter of the arches gradually altered with the aſcent of the ſun above the horizon, and the phænomenon itſelf, after continuing a conſiderable time, inſenſibly vaniſhed *.

ULLOA

* Several of the gentlemen, both French and Spaniards, have particularly deſcribed this phænomenon, and M. Bouguer concludes with ſaying, "This was a kind of apotheoſis "to each ſpectator; and I cannot forbear mentioning again, "that each enjoyed the ſecret pleaſure of ſeeing himſelf adorn-

ULLOA obſerves, that the roads over ſome of theſe mountains are not the leaſt of thoſe many extraordinary particulars relating to them. Theſe are in many places ſo narrow, that the mules have ſcarce room to ſet their feet, and in others is a continued ſeries of precipices. Theſe roads are, beſides, full of holes, near three quarters of a yard deep, in which the mules put their fore and hind feet, whence they ſometimes draw their bellies, and the riders legs, along the ground. Theſe holes indeed ſerve as ſteps, without which the precipices would be in a manner impaſſable; but, ſhould the mule happen to put his feet between two of theſe holes, or not place them right, the rider falls, and, if on the ſide of the precipice, inevitably periſhes. But the manner of deſcending appears ſtill more dangerous. On one ſide are frequently ſteep eminences, and on the other dreadful abyſſes; and, as they generally follow the direction of the mountain, the road, inſtead of being on a level, forms ſteep eminences and declivities. The mules are ſenſible of the caution neceſſary in theſe deſcents; for, coming to the top of an eminence they ſtop, and having placed their fore feet cloſe together, put their hinder feet a little forwards, as if going to lie down. Having in this attitude taken a ſurvey of the road, they ſlide down with the ſwiftneſs of a meteor. All the rider has to do is to keep himſelf faſt in the ſaddle; for the leaſt motion is ſufficient to diſorder the equilibrium of the mule, in which caſe, they

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" ed with all theſe crowns, without perceiving thoſe of his " neighbours. I muſt, however, obſerve, that this phœno- " menon never appears, but when the aqueous particles of " the cloud are frozen.

both

both unavoidably periſh. Nothing, ſays our author, can be more amazing than the animal's addreſs on this occaſion, for during this rapid motion, when he ſeems to have loſt all government of himſelf, he follows with the utmoſt exactneſs the different windings of the road, as if he had accurately ſettled in his mind all the turnings he was to follow, and taken every precaution for his ſafety. Yet the longeſt practice in travelling theſe roads cannot intirely free the mules from a kind of dread, which they experience on arriving at the top of a ſteep declivity; for they not only attentively view the road, but tremble and ſnort at the danger. If the rider inadvertently endeavours to ſpur them on, they continue immoveable, till, at length, having overcome the firſt emotions of their fear, they ſtretch out their fore legs, that by preſerving a proper balance, they may not pitch head forwards; and it is wonderful to conſider how they make with their body, all the gentle inclinations neceſſary to inable them to follow the ſeveral windings of the road, and afterwards their addreſs in ſtopping themſelves at the end of their impetuous career.

THE tedioufneſs and danger of the way is however, in ſome parts, alleviated and rendered more tolerable by the fine proſpects and agreeable caſcades naturally formed among the rocks and mountains. In ſome parts, the water in the vallies ſprings up to a great height, like artificial fountains, amongſt odoriferous plants and flowers, that yield a delightful proſpect. Many of theſe ſtreams and ſprings are ſo exceeding cold, that a man can ſcarce drink them, or hold his hand in them above a minute; but in ſome places there are hot ſprings, which leave a green tincture in the channel through which they paſs, and are reckoned good againſt many diſtempers.

FROM moſt of the mountains flow large and rapid rivers, and we read of a natural bridge of rocks over one of them, from the vault of which hang ſeveral pieces of ſtone reſembling icicles, formed, as the water drops from the rock, into various ſhapes and of different colours. This bridge is broad enough for three or four carts to paſs abreaſt; and there is another bridge near it, laid over by art (as ſome ſay) between two rocks, but an author, who ſaw it, thinks it is rather the work of nature. It is ſo far above the river that he could not hear the ſtream, though it runs with great rapidity; and, though the river be of a conſiderable breadth, it appeared like a brook, when he looked down from the bridge, which he could not do without horror.

THE bridges made by art are generally far from being commodious. Of theſe there are two kinds, beſides thoſe of ſtone, which are very few. The moſt common are of wood, and the reſt of the bejucos, a plant we ſhall particularly deſcribe when we come to treat of the vegetables of South America. With reſpect to the firſt, they chuſe a place where the river is very narrow, and has on each ſide high rocks. Theſe bridges only conſiſt of four long beams laid from one precipice to the other, forming a path about a yard and a half in breadth, juſt ſufficient for a man to paſs over on horſeback; and cuſtom has rendered them ſo familiar, that people paſs them without any apprehenſions. Thoſe formed of bejucos are never uſed but where the breadth of the river will not admit of beams being laid acroſs. Several of theſe bejucos are twiſted together, in order to form a large cable of the length required; and ſix of them are drawn from one ſide of the river to the other, two of which being conſiderably higher

er than the other four, ſerve for rails. Acroſs thoſe at the bottom, are wattled ſticks of bejuco, and the whole is not unlike a fiſhing-net, or Indian hammoc, ſtretched from one ſide of the river to the other; but, as the meſhes of this net are very large, and the foot would be in danger of ſlipping through, they cover the bottom with reeds, which ſerve for a floor. The mere weight of this kind of baſket bridge, and much more the weight of a man paſſing over, muſt cauſe it to make a prodigious bend; and, if, ſays our author, it be conſidered, that the paſſenger, when in the midſt of his courſe, eſpecially if there be a wind, is expoſed to be ſwung from ſide to ſide, a bridge of this ſort, ſometimes above ninety feet long, muſt appear extremely frightful; yet the Indians run over it, loaded with the baggage and pack-ſaddles of the mules, laughing to ſee the Europeans afraid of venturing. The greateſt part of theſe bridges are only for men and women, the mules ſwimming over the rivers; for, their loading being taken off, they are driven into the water about a mile and a half above the bridge, in order that they may reach the oppoſite ſhore near it, they being uſually carried ſo far by the rapidity of the ſtream.

INSTEAD of a bejuco bridge, ſome rivers are paſſed by means of a tarabita, which is a ſingle rope, either made of bejucos, or thongs cut from the hide of an ox, and conſiſting of ſeveral ſtrands, which, when twiſted, form a rope of ſix or eight inches in thickneſs. This is extended acroſs the river and faſtened on one ſide to a ſtrong poſt, and on the other to a wheel, that it may be ſtreightened or ſlackened as occaſion ſerves. From the tarabita, hangs a kind of leathern hammoc, big enough to hold a man, and ſuſpended by a clue at

each end, hanging in a loop over the tarabita. A rope is alſo faſtened to it, and extended over the river, for drawing the hammoc to the ſide intended; which, with a puſh at it's firſt ſetting off, ſends it quickly to the other ſide. This not only ſerves to carry over perſons, but the burthens of beaſts, and alſo the beaſts themſelves, where the rapidity of the current, and the prodigious ſtones continually carried along by it, render it impracticable for them to ſwim over. For carrying over the mules, two tarabitas are uſed, one for each ſide of the river; and theſe are much thicker and ſlacker. On this rope is only one clue or loop, which is of wood; and by this a beaſt is ſuſpended, he being faſtened to it with girths round the belly and neck. When this is performed, the creature is ſhoved off, and almoſt immediately landed on the oppoſite ſide. Thoſe accuſtomed to be conveyed over in this manner never make the leaſt oppoſition, but come of themſelves to have the girths faſtened round them: yet they are at firſt brought with great difficulty to ſuffer this to be done, and, on their finding themſelves thus ſuſpended in the air, kick and fling during their ſhort paſſage.

BUT, if we may believe Acoſta, there is ſtill a greater danger in travelling over ſome of the mountains of Peru, than any we have yet mentioned. He tells us, that there are mountainous uninhabited deſerts, where a ſudden blaſt of air ſometimes ſtrikes a traveller dead in an inſtant; and that the Spaniards formerly paſſed theſe mountains in their way to Chili, but now either go by ſea, or take another road by land, to avoid the danger of croſſing them, in which journey many have periſhed, and others have loſt their fingers and toes, and have been rendered cripples. The ſame author

author relates, that, general Coſtilla marching over them with his army, great part of his men ſuddenly fell down dead, and their bodies remained there without ſtench or corruption. As incredible as this appears, it ſeems to be confirmed by the reports of our ſeamen, who aſſure us, that they have ſeen great numbers of bodies of men, women, and children, lying dead upon the ſands in Peru, and looking as freſh as if they had not lain there a week; but, when they were handled, they proved as dry and light as a ſpunge or a piece of cork. Whatever was the cauſe of the death of theſe people, it is agreed on all hands, that the dryneſs of the Peruvian air, and the heat of the ſands, preſerved their bodies from putrefaction.

In treating of the climate of America, we mentioned the extraordinary advantages the audience of Lima enjoys in being free from tempeſts, thunder, lightning, ſnow, hail, and rain; but obſerved that it is ſubject to earthquakes, which indeed happen here ſo frequently, that the inhabitants are under continual apprehenſions of being buried in the ruins of their own houſes: yet they are ſaid to have their preſages; one of the chief of which is a rumbling noiſe in the bowels of the earth about a minute before the ſhocks are felt, and ſeems to pervade all the adjacent ſubterraneous parts. This is followed by the howlings of the dogs, who appear ſenſible of the approaching danger; and the very beaſts of burden, paſſing the ſtreets, are obſerved to ſtop, and, by a natural inſtinct, to ſpread open their legs, the better to ſecure themſelves from falling. Theſe portents are no ſooner obſerved, than the terrified inhabitants fly from their houſes into the ſtreets, with ſuch precipitation, that, if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked, fear, and the urgency

of the danger, baniſhing all ſenſe of decency. This ſudden concourſe is accompanied with the cries of children, awaked from ſleep, mingled with the lamentations of the women, whoſe agoniſing prayers to the ſaints increaſe the common fear and confuſion; and, the men being alſo too much affected to refrain from giving vent to their terror, the whole city exhibits a dreadful ſcene of conſternation and horror.

THE earthquakes that have happened in the city of Lima, are very numerous; but we ſhall only mention two of them. One of the moſt terrible was on the twenty-eighth of October 1687, and began at four in the morning, with the deſtruction of many of the fineſt public buildings and houſes, in which a great number of the inhabitants periſhed; but this was little more than a preſage of what followed; for, two hours after, the ſhock returned with ſuch impetuous concuſſions, that all was laid in ruins, and the inhabitants began to think themſelves happy in the preſervation of their lives, and being only ſpectators of the general devaſtation, and the loſs of all their property. But alas! during this ſecond ſhock, the ſea, retiring conſiderably, and then returning in mountainous waves, entirely overwhelmed Callao, and the adjacent country, together with the miſerable inhabitants.

FROM that time ſix earthquakes happened at Lima before the dreadful one of 1746. This was, at half an hour after ten at night, when the concuſſions began with ſuch violence, that in little more than three minutes the greateſt part, if not all the buildings, in this fine and beautiful city, were deſtroyed, and thoſe of the inhabitants who had not made ſufficient haſte, into the ſtreets and ſquares, were buried under the ruins. At length

length the terrible effects of this firſt ſhock ceaſed, but the tranquillity was of ſhort duration; the concuſſions ſwiftly ſucceeding each other, the fort of Callao alſo ſunk into ruins; but what the city had ſuffered from the deſtruction of it's buildings, was inconſiderable, when compared with the dreadful cataſtrophe which followed; for the ſea, as uſual, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, and ſuddenly turned Callao and the neighbouring country into a ſea. This, however, was not perfectly performed by the firſt ſwell of the waves; for the ſea, retiring ſtill farther, returned with greater impetuoſity, and covered both the walls and the ruins of the place; ſo that what had even eſcaped the firſt, was now totally overwhelmed, by thoſe terrible mountainous waves. In the harbour were twenty-three ſhips and veſſels, great and ſmall; nineteen of which were ſunk, and the other four carried to a conſiderable diſtance up the country. This terrible inundation extended to other parts of the coaſt, and ſeveral towns underwent the ſame fate with the city of Lima.

THE rivers of South America, eſpecially thoſe which take their riſe to the eaſtward of the mountains we have been ſpeaking of, deſerve our notice, ſome of them being the largeſt in the world, both with regard to their depth and breadth, and the length of their courſe; but moſt of thoſe that riſe on the weſt ſide of the Andes are rather torrents than rivers, made by the annual rains that fall on the mountains.— The Rio Grande or Magdalena, which has it's ſource in the province of Quito in Peru, near the equator, runs directly northward above a thouſand miles, and falls into the

ſea between Carthagena and St. Martha.—The celebrated river Oronoquo or Oronoko, which has it's ſource not far from that of Magdalena, after a winding courſe of fifteen hundred miles or upwards, falls into the north ſea near the iſle of Trinidad, forming a large gulf, in which there are many ſmall iſlands.—But the moſt amazing river, and generally ſuppoſed the largeſt in the world, is that of the Amazons *, which riſes about ten leagues from Quito in Peru, and after many windings and turnings keeps it courſe to the eaſt, till it falls into the Atlantic ocean between the coaſts of Guiana and Brazil. It's channel, about ſixty leagues from it's head,

* It may not be amiſs to acquaint the reader with the origin of the name of this river, and of the country through which it flows. The Amazons then, according to the ancient hiſtorians, were a nation of warlike women, who founded an empire in Aſia Minor, along the coaſts of the Black ſea, out of which men were excluded. What commerce they had with that ſex was only with ſtrangers at ſome appointed times, and all their male children they killed, and cut off the right breaſt of the females, that their arm might be the ſtronger and more at liberty in battle. It is a point controverted indeed, even amongſt ancient writers, whether ſuch a nation of Amazons ever exiſted, but the greateſt part of them are on the affirmative ſide of the queſtion. M. Petit, a French phyſician, publiſhed a Latin diſſertation in 1685, to prove that there really was ſuch a race of female warriors, wherein he has made curious enquiries relating to their habit, their arms, the cities they built, &c. Be this as it will, the Spaniards, who firſt diſcovered and ſailed up the American river we are ſpeaking of, were told of ſuch a barbarous nation of women by ſome of the natives, on purpoſe to frighten them; and they actually found the women in ſeveral places bordering on the river as fierce and warlike as the men, it being their cuſtom to accompany their huſbands to battle, and to ſhare their fate: and hence proceeded the name of the country and river of the Amazons.

is three miles broad; and, as it receives many large rivers in it's courſe, it grows wider and wider as it advances towards the ocean, where it's mouth is fifty or ſixty leagues in breadth. Even before it leaves Peru, it's depth is ten or twelve fathoms, from whence it increaſes to twenty, thirty, fifty, and ſometimes much more, before it reaches the ocean. From it's ſource to it's mouth it is eight or nine hundred leagues in a direct line; but the windings make it about twelve hundred, or eighteen according to ſome computations. In the year 1639 Texeira, a Portugueſe, employed himſelf ten months in making a ſurvey of this great river.—There is another river of South America little inferior to the former in breadth and depth, though it does not come up to it in length of courſe, viz. that called Rio de la Plata, which, reckoning only from the confluence of the two rivers that form it, runs above two hundred leagues, and is all the way navigable for the largeſt veſſels, and full of delightful iſlands. In it's courſe it receives ſeveral conſiderable rivers, and ſometimes ſwells to ſuch a height as to overflow a great deal of land on each ſide, during which time the natives betake themſelves to their canoes, and when the inundation abates, return to their old habitations. It falls into the ocean by a mouth thirty leagues broad, running with ſuch ſtrength and rapidity, that it takes off the ſaltneſs of the ſea to the diſtance of ſeveral miles. A certain author tells us, that the water of this river is very clear, ſweet, and excellent for the lungs, ſo that the people who drink it have melodious voices, and are generally inclined to muſic; but ſuch an account is too whimſical to be regarded. He adds, that it petrifies the branches of trees that fall into it, and that veſſels of various figures are naturally formed

formed of it's ſand, which keep water cool, and look as if they had received an artificial poliſh.

WE ſhall only mention one more river, or at leaſt a conſiderable ſtream of water, remarkable for it's ſubterraneous paſſage. This is in the weſtern parts of Tucuman, a province of Paraguay, where it ſeems there is a very large and lofty mountain, which, from it's glittering when the ſun ſhines upon it, is called the Cryſtal mountain. Under this is extended a frightful cavern, through which runs a river with ſo many windings and turnings that the water is four and twenty or thirty hours in it's paſſage from one ſide of the mountain to the other, according to the computation of ſome Portugueſe, who were raſh enough (as Purchas relates) to make the experiment, by hazarding their perſons on a raſter made of canes.

As to the qualities of the waters in the ſouth part of America, it is obſerved that ſome lakes in the vallies are extremely hot, particularly one near Potoſi in Peru, which perfectly boils up in the middle, where the ſpring riſes; but the heat is ſo moderate near the ſhore, that the inhabitants bathe in it frequently. In the ſandy plains near the coaſt of Peru there are very few ſprings, but a great variety in that part which is remote from the ſea; amongſt which there is one near Oropeſa, whoſe water is very hot, and after running a little way it petrifies and forms a rock. It is ſaid the natives uſe the ſtone in building their houſes, it being ſoft, light eaſily wrought, and yet very durable. Travellers alſo tell us of ſprings of liquid matter much reſembling tar, and put to the ſame uſes by ſea-faring people.

AT the baths of the Yncas (as they are called) an appellation given to the ancient kings of Peru, there is a ſpring of water that iſſues out hot and boiling,

boiling, and another near it as cold as ice, which uſed to be tempered and mingled together for thoſe princes to bathe in.—Near Cuſco there is ſaid to be a fountain, whoſe waters, after a ſhort courſe, turn into ſalt.—From the top of the mountain Balconotta, by ſome reckoned the higheſt in Peru, there riſe two ſprings, which run different ways, and ſoon form two conſiderable ſtreams. Their waters, when they firſt iſſue from the rocks, are of an aſh-colour, hot and ſmoaking, and ſmell like burning coals; which ſmell they retain a great way from their ſource, till they mingle with other ſtreams, and become cool.—To theſe we may add another fountain in Peru, which ſends forth a ſtream almoſt as red as blood, from whence it has obtained the name of the Red river.

FOSSILS.

ALMOST every part of South America affords mines of gold and ſilver, but thoſe rich metals are moſt abundantly found in Chili and Peru, as well as large quantities of copper, tin, lead, and quickſilver. It is obſerved, that gold is moſt frequently found native of all the metals, being rarely met with in a ſtate of ore, and then intermixed with the ores of other metals: but, though native gold be free from the penetrating ſulphurs which reduce other metals to ores, it is very ſeldom found pure, but has almoſt conſtantly a mixture of ſilver with it, and frequently of copper. If it have any conſiderable quantity of copper in it, it is eaſily diſcovered by it's hardneſs; but the ſilver is not ſo readily detected. Sometimes the native gold is found in the mines in pure maſſes, ſo large as to weigh twelve, fourteen, or ſixteen ounces; but theſe are very rare. It's more common appearance

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in it's looſe ſtate is in form of what is called gold duſt, that is, ſmall particles mixed among the ſand of rivers; which is very frequent in Guinea, as we have already obſerved, and many other parts of the world. But native gold is alſo found in a middle ſtate, as to ſize, between the two kinds juſt mentioned, in the clifts or perpendicular fiſſures of the ſolid ſtrata in the mountains of Chili. Theſe fiſſures are uſually filled with a reddiſh earth, the native gold being either looſe amongſt it, or immerced in a debaſed cryſtalline ſtone of a bluiſh hue, and generally in flattiſh pieces, from the ſize of a ſmall pea to that of a horſe-bean; but no great quantity has yet been diſcovered. When they have dug out this red marle, it is carried on mules to the lavaderos (as they call them) a ſort of baſons of water*, where it undergoes ſeveral repeated lotions in different waters, till the earthy and impure parts are all ſeparated and carried away by the ſtream, and the gold left at the bottom.

IN theſe forms gold frequently appears in thoſe parts of the world where it abounds, but ſtill the greateſt quantities of it are found bedded in maſſes of hard ſtone, which lie at vaſt depths, being often dug at a hundred and fifty fathoms. There

* Theſe lavatories or baſons, according to M. Frezier, are made ſomewhat in the manner of a ſmith's bellows, into which a little rivulet of water runs with a great deal of rapidity, diſſolving the parts of the earth, and carrying every thing away with it except the particles of gold, which by their weight precipitate to the bottom. Sometimes large pieces of gold are found in theſe lavatories, which uſually turn to very great profit when there is no want of water, the expences of getting gold this way being but trifling, compared with thoſe accruing in the common method, by machines, fire, and quickſilver.

is

is no peculiar ſtone in which it is immerſed, but it is met with indiſcriminately in ſeveral kinds, ſome ſofter, ſome harder, and even in earths. The richeſt maſſes are uſually a whitiſh but opake ſtone, which is a debaſed cryſtal, containing a great deal of white earth, often tinged likewiſe with black, and ſometimes with other colours. In this ſtone the gold lies in a great variety of figures, ſometimes like ſmall branches, at other times interwoven in narrower or broader veins, or in little flat ſpangles intermixed with ſpecks of black. But, beſides this ſort, there are many coarſer ſtones in the mines of Peru, which contain conſiderable quantities of gold, viſible in large or ſmall ſpots; and theſe are of all colours, but generally white or reddiſh. In theſe ſtones the gold is commonly in ſmall ſpangles.

In order to ſeparate the gold when dug out of the mines, they firſt break the metalline ſtone or ore with iron mallets, and then carry it to the mills, where it is ground to a very fine powder, which is afterwards paſſed through ſeveral braſs-wire ſieves, as fine as any we have made of ſilk †. The powder thus prepared is laid in wooden troughs, with a proper quantity of mercury and water, where it is worked together, and there left to ſaturate in the ſun and air for eight and forty hours. During this time the mercury imbibes all the gold, without cohering with the coarſer earth or ſand, which, upon inclining the trough, is eaſily waſhed away with the water. The maſs which remains now concreted at the bottom is nothing but gold, mercury, and ſome fine earth,

† The uſual method of ſeparating gold from the ore in Hungary ſee in Vol. II. p. 106, 107.

which

which laſt they diſengage from the maſs by repeated affuſions of hot water, and the mercury they ſeparate by diſtillation in large alembics. The gold in this ſtate, though not yet perfectly pure, is called virgin gold, as well as that found in the ſand of rivers, or that in grains in the mines, in regard none of them have paſſed the fire. After this they uſually fuſe it in crucibles, and caſt it into plates or ingots.

THE next metal to gold in value is ſilver, and of this the mines of Peru and ſome other parts of America afford the greateſt quantities of any in the world. This metal, as well as gold, is found native more frequently than in a ſtate of ore; what are commonly called ſilver-ores, ſays Mr. Hill, (on whoſe authority we chiefly depend in theſe matters) being no other than ſtones of various kinds, in which are bedded large quantities of native ſilver. Sometimes it is alſo contained in the ſofter foſſils, as earths; and ſometimes it is found looſe among ſtrata of ſand. That which is lodged in ſtone is uſually diſpoſed in flat maſſes variouſly ſtreaked, ridged, and often reſembling ſilver-lace; that in earths is frequently branched, and that among ſand in ſmall roundiſh or oblong granules. However, though ſilver is often found thus native and pure, it is likewiſe frequently met with in a ſtate of ore, and ſometimes imbodied in the ores of other metals. The proper and peculiar ores of ſilver are alſo very various in their appearance, but it's moſt uſual ore is a ſingular and remarkable body, being naturally malleable. The colour of this is a blackiſh blue, and it ſo nearly reſembles lead that many have miſtaken it for that metal in it's native ſtate. It is found in large irregular maſſes, ſometimes of a laminated ſtructure, extremely heavy, and very rich in metal,

tal, containing often three fourths of pure ſilver; but among theſe are uſually found ſome of a more debaſed nature, containing much leſs ſilver, and diſtinguiſhed from the reſt by their not being malleable and of a paler colour.

ANOTHER appearance of ſilver in the ſtate of ore is in browniſh maſſes, obſcurely tranſparent, not a little reſembling the coarſer ſorts of amber. Theſe are uſually of an irregular ſhape, often in the form of our common pebbles, but ſometimes flatted and with rugged edges. This ſort of ore breaks with a ſlight blow, and is alſo very rich in ſilver, uſually containing near two thirds of it's weight in metal. But there is yet another appearance of ſilver-ore, ſuperior to all other ores in beauty, being a compact ſubſtance, of a regular texture, of a very bright red, a ſmooth even ſurface, and conſiderably pellucid. This very much reſembles the native ſandarach*, and is ſometimes exactly of the fine florid red of that body, and now and then approaching to a crimſon.

THESE are the more uſual appearances of ſilver in a ſtate of ore, but it is found with numberleſs accidental variations; and there are ſtones of all colours and conſiſtencies wrought in different places for the ſilver they contain. In the mines of Peru, ſome of the ores, as they are called, are grey ſpotted with blue and red; others have various ſhades of red, with admixtures of yellow or brown; and others are black, green, or yellow.

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* This is a preparation of orpiment, and is the ſame with what is otherwiſe called red arſenic; but there is alſo a white gum named ſandarach, obtained from the trunk and thick branches of the great juniper-tree, by inciſions made in the heats of ſummer.

Some

Some of theſe are of the nature of one or other of the ores above deſcribed, only debaſed by adventitious mixtures; the others are ſtones wherein native ſilver is lodged, which are commonly confounded with the reſt under the name of ſilver-ores. The black ores are the richeſt and moſt eaſily wrought, and the ſilver they yield is of the beſt ſort. The veins of ſilver, of what quality ſoever, are uſually richer in the middle than towards the extremities; but the richeſt places are thoſe where the veins interſect.

THE moſt celebrated mines of Peru are thoſe of Potoſi, which have now been opened above two hundred years, and yet continue to be wrought with equal advantage as when firſt diſcovered; only with this difference, that the veins, which were then almoſt on the ſurface of the mountain, are now ſunk to prodigious depths, ſome of the pits or wells being two hundred fathoms deep, and yet (which is very remarkable) not incommoded with water. What renders the working of the mines exceeding dangerous are the exhalations ariſing from them, which are even felt on the outſide, and affect animals that graze in the neighbourhood; but within they ſtupefy the miners, none of whom can bear ſo poiſonous an air above a day together. Sometimes it is ſo fatal as to kill on the ſpot, and oblige them to ſtop up the veins from whence it exhales. The mines of Potoſi are much the leaſt ſubject to theſe vapours, and yet, without the herb paraguay, the infuſion whereof is drank by the miners as we do tea, theſe mines muſt ſoon be abandoned. Some millions of Indians have periſhed in them, and prodigious numbers continue to be deſtroyed yearly.

THE mountain of Potoſi, which is famous for the immenſe quantity of ſilver it has produced, was

was firſt diſcovered to contain that metal, by a mere accident. An Indian, by ſome called Gualca, and by others Hualpa, purſuing ſome wild goats up this mountain, and coming to a very ſteep part, laid hold of a ſhrub, in order to aſcend with the greater celerity; but, it being unable to ſupport his weight, came up by the roots, and diſcovered a maſs of fine ſilver; and at the ſame time he found ſome lumps of the ſame metal among the clods which adhered to the roots. The Indian, who lived at Porco, haſted home, waſhed the ſilver, and made uſe of it, repairing, when his ſtock was exhauſted, to his perpetual fund. At length, an intimate friend of his, named Guanca, perceiving the happy change in his circumſtances, eagerly ſought to know the cauſe; and repeated his queſtions with ſuch earneſtneſs, that Gualca, confiding in his friendſhip, revealed the ſecret. For ſome time, they reſorted to the mountain for freſh ſupplies, till, Gualca refuſing to diſcover his method of purifying the metal, Guanca, in revenge, revealed the whole ſecret to his maſter Villarroel, who went, in April 1545, to view this fortunate breach in the mountain; and the mine was inſtantly worked with immenſe advantage. The firſt mine had the name of The Diſcoverer, from it's occaſioning the diſcovery of other ſources of wealth incloſed in the bowels of this mountain; for, in a few, days another was found no leſs rich, and was named the Tin mine; afterwards another was found and diſtinguiſhed by the name of Rica, or Rich, it exceeding all the reſt. At length, another was diſcovered, which was called the Mendieta. Theſe are the principal mines of this celebrated mountain; but there are ſeveral ſmaller, croſſing it on all ſides.

THE

THE importance of theſe diſcoveries induced people to flock to Potoſi from all ſides, particularly from the city of Plata, which ſtands about ſeventy-five miles from the mountain, whence the town of Potoſi is at preſent near ſix miles in circuit, and inhabited by many noble families, particularly theſe concerned in the mines. The air at the mountains is indeed ſo cold, as to render all the adjacent country remarkably barren; for it produces neither corn, fruit, nor herbs, and yet the town is ſo plentifully ſupplied, as to be in want of nothing, the trade for proviſions being greater there than in any other place, Lima excepted. Some provinces ſend the beſt of their corn and fruit, others their cattle, others their manufactures; while others reſort thither with European goods, as to a ſure market. A Spaniſh author declares on the beſt authority, that, before the year 1638, it appeared by the public accounts that the ſilver, produced by this mountain, amounted to three hundred ninety-five millions ſix hundred and nineteen thouſand dollars; which in ninety-three years, the time it had then been diſcovered, amount to forty-one millions two hundred and fifty-five thouſand and forty-three dollars per annum. Hence an idea may be formed of the immenſe trade that has for many years been carried on in this town, which conſiſts intirely of the ſilver extracted from this mountain, and is ſtill very conſiderable, though ſome diminution has been perceived in it's produce.

IN the province of Carangas, which is remarkably cold, is a great number of ſilver mines conſtantly worked; among which, one called Turko, is remarkable for the ore named by miners Machacado, the fibres of the ſilver forming an admirable intertexture with the ſtones in which they are contained.

contained. Beſides, in the barren, ſandy deſerts, extending towards the coaſt of the South ſea, are found, by digging in the ſand, detached lumps of ſilver, unmixed with any ore or ſtone, but what adheres to the metal, they having all the appearance of melted ſilver, with black terrene particles on the outſide. The ſize and figure of theſe lumps are very different, ſome weighing about two marks, or ſixteen ounces, and ſome above a hundred marks. Theſe lumps of ſilver are found in different parts of the ſame ground, though ſeldom near each other.

THE manner of ſeparating ſilver from it's marcaſite or ore is nearly the ſame as in gold. They break the ore in the ſtamping-mill till it is reduced to powder, and then mix it up with mercury into a ſort of paſte, which they knead in the troughs till the water has by degrees waſhed away all the earthy particles. After this they ſtrain off part of the mercury from it through a woollen bag to ſerve again, and the reſt is made to evaporate by fire. The ſilver that remains behind is, laſt of all, perfectly refined from all heterogeneous matter by a ſolution of lead, which, exhaling from it, carries off in fumes the copper or other allay.

ANOTHER part of the riches of Peru are it's mines of quickſilver, which afford ſurpriſing quantities of that uſeful mineral. Thoſe of Guancavelica or Oropeſa are the moſt famous, and are more conſiderable than the rich mines of Carniola in Europe, of which we have heretofore given an account*. Frezier tells us that the mines of Guancavelica ſupply all the gold-and ſilver mills in that kingdom; but this ſeems to be a miſtake, ſince

* See Vol. II. p. 113.

other

other mines are wrought which produce plenty of quickſilver. The earth containing the quickſilver is of a whitiſh red, like bricks half burnt, which being pounded is put in an earthen furnace, whoſe top is vaulted like an oven. They ſpread it on a layer of common earth, wherewith the grate of the furnace is covered, under which they keep a ſmall fire made of a ſhrub they call icho, which is of ſuch neceſſity in theſe works, that the cutting it for any other uſe is prohibited for the ſpace of twenty leagues round. In proportion as the pounded mineral heats, the mercury riſes volatilized into ſmoke, which finding no vent through the capital of the furnace, which is exactly luted, eſcapes through a hole made for that purpoſe, communicating with ſeveral earthen cucurbits, each having a little water at the bottom. By means of this water the ſmoke is condenſed, and the quickſilver precipitates, and is taken out when the operation is over*.—It is remarkable in this proceſs, that the farther the cucurbits are from the furnace, the more they are filled with quickſilver; and they all grow ſo hot that they would break, if they were not ſprinkled from time to time with water.—The workmen employed in this buſineſs never hold it long, but become paralytic, and die miſerably†.

HAVING been ſo particular in our account of the gold and ſilver of the ſouth part of America, it will not be expected we ſhould ſay much concerning the baſer metals, eſpecially as we have

* The reader may ſee other methods of ſeparating mercury from it's ore, in Vol. II. p. 114.

† See more of the effects of mercury in the Note, Vol. II. p. 115.

ſpoken

ſpoken of them ſufficiently in Europe. We may juſt obſerve however, that Chili abounds with copper, of which the Spaniards make their great guns for thoſe parts of their dominions, the bells of their churches, and family utenſils; ſo that, ſince the working of the mines of Chili, no copper has been ſent from Spain, as they afford the Indies a ſufficient ſupply of that metal.

As to precious ſtones, though we have deſcribed moſt of them in our ſurvey of the Eaſt Indies*, it is proper to obſerve, that Peru is noted for it's emeralds. The ancients indeed, and Pliny in particular, miſtakenly reckoned up various kinds of emeralds†, but the modern naturaliſts and jewellers only know of two, the Oriental and the Peruvian.

DIAMONDS have lately been diſcovered in Braſil, and are found in the ſame manner as the Braſilian gold, in the gullies of torrents, and beds of rivers; but only in particular places, and they are not ſo univerſally ſpread through the country. It is ſaid that they were frequently found in waſhing the gold, before they were known to be diamonds; and were thrown away with the ſand and gravel. It is ſtill remembered, that many large ſtones, that would have enriched the poſſeſſors, paſſed unregarded through the hands of thoſe who afterwards bore with great impatience the mortifying reflection. However, about forty years ago, a perſon acquainted with rough diamonds imagined that theſe pebbles, as they were then thought, were of the ſame kind: but it is ſaid there was a conſiderable interval between the firſt ſtarting of

* See Vol. IV. p. 7—18.
† See Vol. IV. p. 15. *Note.*

this opinion and it's being confirmed by proper trials; the inhabitants being, with difficulty perſuaded to believe that what they had deſpiſed could be of ſuch importance; and, during this interval, a governor is ſaid to have procured a good number of theſe ſtones, under the pretence of making uſe of them in playing at cards, inſtead of counters. It was, however, at laſt confirmed by European jewellers conſulted, on this occaſion, that they were real diamonds; and many of them not inferior, either in luſtre or any other quality, to thoſe of India, except their having generally a yellowiſh caſt. Immediately the Portugueſe, in the neigbourhood of the places where they had been found, began to ſearch for them, with great eagerneſs; and even hoped to diſcover conſiderable maſſes of them, from their perceiving large rocks of cryſtal in many of the mountains, from whence came the ſtreams that waſhed down the diamonds. It was ſoon, however, repreſented to his Portugueſe majeſty, that, if ſuch plenty of diamonds, as was expected, ſhould be found, this would not only debaſe their value, and ruin all the Europeans who had a quantity of India diamonds in their poſſeſſion, but render the diſcovery of no importance. The king, therefore, reſtrained the general ſearch for them, by erecting a diamond company, with an excluſive charter, who, in conſideration of their paying his majeſty a certain ſum, have the property of all the diamonds found in Braſil: but, to prevent their collecting too large quantities, and thereby reducing their value, are prohibited from employing above eight hundred ſlaves, in ſearching for them. And, to ſecure the company from being defrauded by interlopers, he depopulated a large town in it's neighbourhood, with a conſiderable diſtrict round it; and obliged the

the inhabitants, who were ſaid to amount to ſix thouſand, to remove to another part of the country.

VEGETABLES.

THERE is no production of this kind in America that more juſtly deſerves our notice, than the tree which yields the celebrated febrifuge, popularly called the Jeſuits bark. It is alſo called quinquina, kina kina, and palo de calenturas, that is fever-wood, on account of it's extraordinary virtue in removing all kinds of intermitting fevers and agues. The tree which produces this noble ſpecific grows only in the inland parts of Peru, on the mountains near Loja or Loxa, in the province of Quito; at leaſt the beſt ſort (for there are different ſpecies of this tree) is no where elſe to be found, according to the account of Mr. Arrot. It is a pretty tall tree, and has a trunk rather bigger than a man's thigh, tapering from the root upwards, and free from branches till near the top, where they ſhoot out as regularly as if they were lopped, forming with the leaves the figure of a hemiſphere. The bark is of a blackiſh colour on the outſide, and ſometimes mixed with white ſpots, from whence commonly grows a kind of moſs, which the Spaniards call barbas. It's leaves are much like thoſe of our plum-tree, of a darkiſh-green colour on the upper ſide, and reddiſh on the lower. It bears a red flower, which is ſucceeded by a ſort of pod, incloſing a ſeed ſomewhat like a hop-ſeed; though Dr. Oliver repreſents it's fruit as reſembling a cheſnut. The ſoil where the beſt ſort thrives is generally a reddiſh earth or rocky ground, and frequently on the banks of the rivulets that fall

from the mountains. Mr. Arrot adds, that it flouriſhes and bears fruit at the ſame time all the year round.

THE bark-trees do not grow together in great numbers, but are intermixed with others in the woods. Sometimes indeed it happens that cluſters of them are found together, but at preſent they are much ſcarcer than in former times, a great many fine large ones having been intirely cut down, in order to come at the bark the more eaſily. The propereſt ſeaſon for cutting the bark is from September to November, the only time in the year that there is ſome intermiſſion from rain in the mountains. Having diſcovered a ſpot where the trees moſt abound, the workmen build huts near it for themſelves, and a large hut to put the bark in, to preſerve it from the wet: but they remove it from hence as ſoon as poſſible to the neareſt plantation or farm-houſe in the low country to dry, which is done by ſpreading it abroad in the open air, and turning it frequently. The Indians, who are the cutters, are each provided with a large knife, and a bag that will hold about fifty pounds of green bark. Two of them take one tree, from whence they cut or ſlice down the bark as far as they can reach from the ground; and then, taking ſticks about half a yard long, they tie them to the tree with tough withies at proper diſtances like the ſteps of a ladder, always ſlicing off the bark as far as they can reach, before they fix a new ſtep. Thus they mount to the top, the Indian below gathering what the other cuts; and this they do by turns, going from tree to tree, till their bag is full; which, when there is plenty of trees, is generally a day's work for one Indian. Our author tells us, that, after a tree is ſtripped of it's bark, it requires eighteen or twenty years to grow again; which is quite different

different from Dr. Oliver's account, who ſays it grows again in four months *.

MR. ARROT had the curioſity to ſend a conſiderable quantity of bark from the woods to the city of Loxa, where he put it into a large open houſe, and dried it under cover, never expoſing it either to the ſun or air of the night; imagining that the ſun exhaled many of it's fine parts, and that the night-air was very pernicious to it: but he found the colour of the bark, thus cured, not near ſo bright and lively as that dried in the open air. This beſt ſort of bark, he imagines, will laſt but a ſhort time, or at leaſt it will be extremely hard to be got, by reaſon of it's diſtance from inhabited places, the impenetrability of the woods where it grows, and the ſmall number of Indians to cut it.

IT is not certain how the qualities and uſe of this remarkable bark came firſt to be known, but it is the common opinion at Loxa that they were known to the Indians before ever the Spaniards came amongſt them; and that it was by them applied in the cure of intermitting fevers, which are frequent in thoſe wet parts of Peru. According to the account of the Spaniards, however, the virtues of the Peruvian bark were diſcovered in the following manner. Near the town of Loxa (ſay they) was a lake ſurrounded with quinquina-trees, which, being blown down or accidentally thrown into the lake, communicated a bitter taſte to the water, ſo that the inhabitants, who

* Dr. Oliver had his account of the bark-tree from an apothecary at Cadiz, who had been in Peru; but Mr. Arrot relates what he himſelf had obſerved and been told whilſt he lived in that country. Who is moſt to be credited, we leave to the reader's judgment.

uſed to drink it, could uſe it no longer. But a certain Indian, who had a violent fever upon him, and conſequently an intenſe thirſt, finding no other water, was forced to drink of this, by which he was perfectly cured. He related this accident to ſome of his neighbours, and ſeveral perſons afflicted with fevers made the ſame experiment with the ſame ſucceſs. Upon this they ſet themſelves to diſcover what had given this febrifugous quality to the water of the lake; and found in the firſt place that a great number of trees had fallen into it; and, ſecondly, that in a courſe of years, theſe trees being rotted in the water, it loſt it's bitter taſte, and at the ſame time it's virtue; whence they concluded, that it's quality was owing to the trees. Then they infuſed all the parts of theſe trees in water, and found that their whole efficacy reſided in the bark. This medicine, however, remained a ſecret to the Spaniards, till the year 1640, when it was diſcovered by a ſoldier, who by it's means had the good fortune to cure the vice-queen of Peru of an intermitting fever, which had baffled the ſkill of her phyſicians. From this time the Spaniards began to uſe it with wonderful ſucceſs; and in 1649 father de Lugo, a Jeſuit, then procurator general of his order, and afterwards cardinal, brought it to Rome; upon which the ſociety of Jeſuits ſoon raiſed it's reputation in Europe, and got a great deal of money in a ſhort time, ſelling it for more than it's weight in gold, and never parting with it but in powder, in order to diſguiſe it the better. At this juncture the phyſicians were divided with reſpect to the Peruvian bark, ſome looking on it as a divine medicine, whilſt others believed it dangerous, and even fatal in many caſes; but it's reputation was only loſt through the ignorance of the manner of preparing

and

and preſcribing it; for, about the year 1679, Mr. Talbot, an Engliſh phyſician, brought it into vogue, by the great number of cures he wrought about the court and city of Paris, with the powder prepared after his manner; the ſecret whereof was afterwards made public, by the munificence of Louis XIV, who rewarded Talbot for the communication with five thouſand crowns.

THE reputation indeed, which this medicine has univerſally obtained, has been chiefly owing to the judicious and ſucceſsful experiments made by the Engliſh phyſicians: But it ſtill has it's enemies, who pretend that it brings on violent relapſes, or new and incurable diſeaſes; ſuch as cachexies, tumours of the feet, dropſies, obſtinate coſtiveneſs, oppreſſion of the præcordia, hypochondriac and hyſteric diſorders, ſlow and hectic fevers, accompanied with a loſs of ſtrength and appetite, and ſometimes convulſions and epilepſies in children. But it is certain that the Peruvian bark, exhibited duly and in conjunction with other ſuitable remedies, has a tendency to remove the cauſes of fevers by promoting perſpiration, and reſtoring the due tone of the ſolids.

IT ought never to be given in large quantities, but rather at ſeveral times, one or two ſcruples only on the intercalary day, every three hours after the fit, drinking after it a ſufficient quantity of water, broth, or beer. Beſides the peculiar febrifuge quality of the bark, it is of peculiar ſervice in ſtopping the progreſs and perfecting the cure of gangrenes and mortifications.

THIS noble medicine is ſold either in bark or in powder. If bought in the bark, it muſt be choſen dry and compact, ſuch as has never been damaged by wet, and is not too eaſily reduced into powder by breaking. The ſmall blackiſh barks,

ſhagreened without, and reddiſh within, of a bitter diſagreeable taſte, are the moſt eſteemed. But the little ſort, which curls up like ſticks of cinnamon, and is ſuppoſed to be peeled off the branches, Mr. Arrot tells us is only the bark of the younger trees, which twiſts up in that manner on account of it's thinneſs; for he ſays the bark of the branches would not anſwer the trouble and expence of cutting.—As to the powder, it ought to be well ſifted, and bought of perſons that may be truſted, it being often ſophiſticated, and the cheat not readily diſcovered.

THERE is another bark called Winter's bark, or Winter's cinnamon, becauſe brought by captain Winter from the Streights of Magellan, where the tree grows in great abundance: but it is to be obſerved, that the wild cinnamon ſold in the ſhops is not the true Cortex Winteranus, though paſſed off under that name. There are barks of different trees, growing in very diſtant places, by outward appearance ſeeming quite different from each other, and even alike with regard to taſte, ſo that they may be uſed as a ſuccedaneum to each other; but the true Winter's bark is much to be valued beyond the falſe, which is generally ſold in the ſhops, being far more aromatic. It is reſolvent, diſcutient, and ſub-aſtringent; on which account it is ſucceſsfully adminiſtered in diſorders of the ſtomach, crudities, nauſeas, diarrhœas, and exceſſive vomitings. To ſtrengthen the ſtomach, it is likewiſe uſed in the declenſion and at the end of intermitting fevers; and it is reckoned beneficial to ſcorbutic patients.

WE ought not to omit another excellent root growing plentifully in Braſil and Peru, namely, ſarſaparilla, which began to be much celebrated about the ſame time with the China root, as appears from

from an epiſtle of Veſalius. The root divides itſelf into a great number of filaments, ſix or ſeven feet long, browniſh without, and white within, only marked with two red ſtreaks; and it's branches creep along the ground, or up the trunks of other trees like ivy. It's chief uſe is in decoctions and potions for the venereal diſeaſe, and in ſome caſes it is reckoned to exceed guaiacum itſelf, eſpecially when the patient is afflicted with rheumatic pains, owing their original to the venereal infection. It is prepared by cutting two ounces of the root into ſmall bits, and macerating them a whole day in ſix pints of water; which are afterwards to be boiled over a gentle fire in a double veſſel well cloſed with a lid, till one third or one half be evaporated. Of this decoction the patient is to take a glaſs that will hold ten ounces, very early in bed; and the courſe is to be continued for twenty or four and twenty days.

In the ſouthern parts of America we find ſeveral trees which furniſh us with healing medicines, particularly the Peruvian balſam. Of this there are two kinds, the white and the black; but the former is accounted beſt, and is by way of eminence called balſam of inciſion, becauſe flowing from a large tree upon making inciſions in the bark. This ſpecies is limpid, of the conſiſtence of turpentine, of a fragrant ſmell, and much ſcarcer and dearer than the black ſort; but it is frequently adulterated with Venice turpentine. We have large quantities of the black ſort imported, which is prepared by boiling the branches, bark, and leaves of the trees; but this is likewiſe often adulterated, which however may be known by it's being thick and coagulated, and wanting it's penetrating taſte and ſmell. The true balſam of Peru, if uſed internally, reſtores loſt and impaired

ſtrength, and, being very friendly to the nervous ſyſtem, powerfully contributes to remove the diſorders ariſing from it's weakneſs. The black Peruvian balſam, according to Geoffrey, is alſo of a warming and ſtrengthening nature, comforting the brain and nerves; and it is beneficial in aſthmas, the cholic, and pains of the ſtomach and inteſtines. Uſed externally, it alleviates the cramp, relieves all kinds of convulſions, old achs and pains, and contractions of the ſinews. In cuts and green wounds it is alſo ſerviceable.

THE balſam of Capivi is produced from a tree growing in Braſil, and brought to us from Rio de Janeiro and other places in earthen veſſels. There are two ſorts of it, the one very limpid, the other pretty thick, but the difference depends upon the different ſeaſons of gathering it. Hoffman eſteems the limpid kind both for internal and external purpoſes, it being an excellent liniment for the conſolidation of wounds and ulcers, and for ſtrengthening the nervous parts after they have been weakened by any diſeaſe. It is alſo beneficial when applied to parts that have been affected with the gout, and thereby rendered unfit for motion. —This balſam is uſed by the Jews to ſtop the blood after circumciſion.

To theſe we may add the balſam of Tolu, the produce of a tree growing in Terra Firma, of a tough reſinous conſiſtence, of a yellowiſh colour, of an highly fragrant ſmell, and aromatic taſte. This is an excellent pectoral medicine, and conſequently of great ſervice in all diſorders of the lungs, as coughs, aſthmas, and conſumptions; and what renders it ſtill more valuable is, that it has no nauſeous oily taſte, which is the caſe of moſt other native balſams. With ſugar and the yolk of an egg it makes an agreeable emulſion; and it is reckoned reſtorative if taken inwardly, and deterges

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and conſolidates wounds if applied externally. It ſtrengthens the nerves, and is good againſt a rheumatiſm and ſciatica. In taſte and ſmell it reſembles the balm of Gilead, and, as it grows old, it becomes friable, and aſſumes the conſiſtence of a dry balſam.

The grenadilla reſembles, in ſhape, a hen's egg, but is larger. The outſide of the ſhell is ſmooth, gloſſy, and of a faint carnation colour; and the inſide white and ſoft; the ſhell containing a viſcous liquid ſubſtance, full of very ſmall and delicate grains, leſs hard than thoſe of the pomegranate, and is ſeparated from the ſhell by a fine tranſparent membrane. This fruit has a delightful ſweetneſs, blended with acidity, very cordial and refreſhing, and ſo wholſome, that the indulgence of one's appetite is not attended with the leaſt danger.

The chirimoya is univerſally allowed to be one of the moſt delicious fruits in the world. It's dimenſions are various, it being from one to five inches in diameter. It's figure is imperfectly round, it being flatted towards the ſtalk, where it forms a kind of navel; but all the other parts are nearly circular. It is covered with a thin, ſoft ſhell, that adheres ſo cloſely to the pulp, as not to be ſeparated from it without a knife. The outward coat is green, variegated with prominent veins, forming all over it a kind of net-work. The pulp, which is white, contains a large quantity of juice, reſembling honey, of a ſweet taſte, mixed with a gentle acid, of a moſt exquiſite flavour. The ſeeds are formed in ſeveral parts of the pulp, and are ſomewhat flat. The tree is high and tufted, the ſtem large and round; but with ſome inequalities, and is full of elliptic leaves, terminating in a point. The bloſſom is nearly of the ſame colour as the leaves, which is a darkiſh green; and,

though far from being beautiful, is remarkable for it's incomparable fragrance; whence theſe flowers are ſo much admired by the ladies that they purchaſe them at any price. The two fruits laſt mentioned are the produce of Quito, in Peru.

THE cuca is an herb ſo highly eſteemed by the Indians in ſome provinces of Peru, that they would part with any kind of proviſions, the moſt valuable metals, gems, or any thing elſe, to obtain it. It grows on a weak ſtem, which ſupports itſelf by twiſting round another ſtronger vegetable; and it's leaf, which is about an inch, or an inch and an half, or two inches in length, is extremely ſmooth. The Indians make uſe of it, for chewing, mixing it with a kind of chalk, or whitiſh earth called mambi. They put into their mouths a few leaves of cuca, and a proper quantity of mambi; and, chewing them together, at firſt ſpit out the ſaliva, but afterwards ſwallow it. This herb is ſo nutrative and invigorating, that they labour whole days without any thing elſe; and, on the want of it, find a decay in their ſtrength; it alſo preſerves the teeth ſound, and fortifies the ſtomach. Great quantities of this herb are cultivated by the Indians in the ſouthern provinces of Peru, and it makes no ſmall article of trade; a great deal of it being particularly carried to the mine-towns, that the owners of the mines may furniſh the Indians with it, who otherwiſe could not be brought to work, or would not have ſtrength to go through it. This plant is doubtleſs the ſame with the betel of the Eaſt-Indies, where it is uſed in the ſame manner.

IN the moſt ſouthern parts of Popayan are certain trees, which yield a reſin called mopa-mopa, of which is made a varniſh, which is not only extremely beautiful, but will bear boiling water, and

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even acids. The method of applying it is to diſſolve ſome of the reſin in ones mouth, and then wet the pencil with it: afterwards, it is dipped in the colour to be laid on; and, when dried, has all the luſtre of the Chineſe lac; but with this ſuperior quality, that it never wears off, nor becomes moiſt, though rubbed with ſpittle. Hence the cabbins, tables, and other furniture, made by the Indians of this country, are carried to Quito, where they are highly valued.

THERE is ſtill to be mentioned a very celebrated plant of the ſhrub kind growing in ſome parts of South America, eſpecially Paraguay, by which name it is called, through better known amongſt us under the denomination of South-ſea tea. It's uſual height is about a foot and a half, it's branches are very ſlender, and it's leaves like thoſe of ſena. It may be looked upon indeed as a ſort of Occidental tea, which, like the Oriental, is infuſed in hot water, and communicates to it a colour and ſmell nearly like thoſe of the beſt tea brought from the Eaſt-Indies. Of this plant there are two kinds, the one called paraguay, the other camini, which laſt is moſt eſteemed, and ſold for a third more than the other. The firſt is chiefly uſed by domeſtics and ſlaves, but the latter is the drink of the richeſt people; and both are of ſo much uſe, and eſteemed of ſuch neceſſity, that no-body in that part of America will live without them. In the mines of Potoſi (as we have already obſerved) the poor ſlaves could not live without a conſtant ſupply of Paraguay, which is their remedy againſt the mineral ſteams, that otherwiſe would ſuffocate them; and it is ſaid that no ſervant will engage himſelf with a maſter but on condition that he have paraguay for his uſual drink.—This plant makes a very conſiderable

conſiderable article in the commerce of that part of the world, and paſſes almoſt wholly through the hands of the Jeſuits. The uſe of it began once to obtain in England, and ſeemed to be approved of as well as tea; but of late years it has not been much regarded. The preparation of it, and the making it into drink, is much the ſame with that of tea, except that both the leaves and wood are uſed, and the liquor drank immediately out of the veſſel it is made in, which the company ſuck through a ſilver or glaſs tube, handed round from one to another. It is farther to be obſerved, that, beſides the virtues of the Eaſtern tea, the Americans attribute another to theirs, viz. that of purifying all kinds of water, how foul and corrupt ſoever; ſo that, when they croſs the deſerts from Buenos Ayres to Peru and Chili, they make uſe of it to ſweeten the bad water they meet with, and drink it without any injury. In the ſcurvy and putrid fevers it is alſo reckoned a ſovereign remedy.

NOR ſhould we forget the American wood called braſil, commonly ſuppoſed to have had it's name from that country, though Huet ſhews it was known many years before Braſil was diſcovered. It is variouſly denominated, according to the places whence it is brought, as Fernambuco, Japan, the Antilles, &c. but it always grows in a dry barren ſoil, and even in the middle of rocks. The tree is tall, uſually crooked and knotty, and has a bark of a ſurpriſing thickneſs. It bears flowers of a very beautiful red, which ſmell agreeably, and are ſaid to ſtrengthen the brain. The wood itſelf is very heavy, crackles much in the fire, and ſcarce raiſes any ſmoke, by reaſon of it's extreme dryneſs. That of Fernambuco is eſteemed the beſt, and it is to be choſen in thick pieces, cloſe, ſound,

ſound, and ſuch as being chewed taſtes ſomething like ſugar.—It takes a good poliſh, and is much uſed in turned works, but more frequently in dying, as it gives a red colour, though none of the moſt laſting. In medicine it is reckoned to mitigate the heat of fevers, and is ſtrengthening and reſtringent.

MANY more productions of the vegetable kind in this part of the world are very remarkable, particularly a large prickly ſhrub, as thick as a man's leg, and growing to the height of ten or twelve feet, but bearing neither leaf nor fruit.—The mammee is a tall ſtrait-bodied tree, without knots or limbs for ſixty or ſeventy feet, but afterwards ſpreading into ſeveral ſmall branches, growing thick and cloſe together. It's bark is of a dark-grey colour, thick and rough; it's fruit bigger than a quince, round, and covered with a thick rind. When the fruit is ripe, the rind is yellow, and will peel off like leather, but before it is brittle. Under the rind the pulp is alſo yellow, and in the middle are two large ſtones, flattiſh, and each of them much bigger than an almond. The fruit ſmells well, and the taſte is not diſagreeable.

IN Terra Firma there are ſeveral ſorts of mangrove trees, which we think it proper to take notice of, beſides thoſe we have mentioned in Africa. They are black, red, and white, the firſt of which is largeſt, being as big as many of our oaks, and to the height of about twenty feet very ſerviceable timber, but extraordinary heavy, and therefore not much uſed in building.—The red mangrove grows commonly by the ſea-ſide, or by creeks and rivers, and proceeds from ſeveral roots, which, about eight or ten feet from the ground, join into one trunk or body, ſo that the tree ſeems to be ſupported by ſo many artificial ſtakes. The

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inſide of the bark is red, and is much uſed in the Weſt-Indies for tanning of leather.—The white mangrove does not grow ſo large as the other ſort, nor is it of any great uſe.

WE ſhall conclude this article with the deſcription of a very uſeful tree, viz. the cacao or chocolate nut-tree, which is found in ſeveral parts of the Weſt-Indies, but no where ſo plentifully as on the coaſt of the Carracas. This tree nearly reſembles our dwarf apple-tree both in body and branches; but the leaf, which is of a deep green, is conſiderably broader and longer. The nuts, which are of the colour and about the ſize of an almond, hang fifteen or ſixteen together by a ſmall ſtringy film, incloſed in a pod ſhaped like a large cucumber, and pointed at the upper end. When the pod is ripe, it is of a beautiful yellow colour, intermixed with blood-red ſtreaks; but when dried it ſhrivels up, and turns to a deep brown. Others tell us that each pod contains from twenty to thirty nuts, and that a thriving tree generally yields from two to eight pounds of nuts in a year; which, when ripe, are cut down and laid in heaps to ſweat for three or four days in the pods, then taken out, covered with plantain leaves, and ſo left to ſweat a fortnight or three weeks longer. After this they are dried three or four weeks in the ſun, and then become of a reddiſh colour.

THE tree is difficult to cultivate, and a plantain is placed by every cacao-tree, becauſe it delights in ſhade. They begin to bear at three, four, and five years old, and come to perfection in fifteen years; but frequently die before that time. They are, however the moſt profitable trees in the world, for we are told ſome of the Spaniards make five thouſand pounds ſterling per annum, from one large plantation of cacaos; and an acre of them in Jamaica

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(from whence we receive more nuts, than from all the reſt of our plantations) has cleared above two hundred pounds in a year. In ſome parts of America, the nuts are uſed by the natives as money, twelve or fourteen being eſteemed equivalent to a Spaniſh real, or about ſeven-pence ſterling.

WHAT renders the cacao-nut moſt famous is it's being the principal ingredient in chocolate, a factitious ſubſtance firſt brought from America into Europe by the Spaniards about the beginning of the laſt century. Some diſſolve this ſubſtance in water, others in milk, and others in wine; but water ſeems to be the beſt vehicle for it, as the moſt proper to diſtribute it's nutrative parts, and to promote digeſtion. The compoſition of chocolate makes it chiefly proper for perſons of cold conſtitutions, for old people, for thoſe who have their ſtrength impaired by repeated watchings, and for thoſe who travel in cold mornings. As it is of an oily and tenacious nature, Dr. Cheyne, in his Eſſay on Health, thinks it ſhould not be uſed by the weak and infirm, either as an aliment or a medicine; but he grants that it may produce all the effects of a ſalutary food in vigorous and ſtrong conſtitutions. It is confirmed by the experience of many phyſicians, that, in hectic, ſcorbutic, and catarrhous diſorders, chocolate is a wonderful remedy, having wrought a cure when all other means have proved ineffectual: And Hoffman affirms, that chocolate prepared with water, contributes much to the cure of melancholic diſorders, ariſing from too weak and lax a ſtate of the nerves, eſpecially if we add to it a few drops of eſſence of amber. Dr. Stubbs, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, affirms, (and Dr. James is of the ſame opinion) that well-prepared chocolate is an excellent diet for thoſe who are ſcorbutic, afflicted with the ſtone or arthritic pains, and to prevent convulſions; and

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yet ſome of the beſt phyſicians have obſerved that drinking chocolate to exceſs contributes to the formation of ſtones, eſpecially in the gall-bladder. It is agreed, however, that a man in perfect health may drink as much chocolate as he has an appetite for, provided he finds himſelf refreſhed, and his ſtomach not over-loaded. In hot and ſanguine conſtitutions the immoderate uſe of this liquor, by inſpiſſating the blood and rendering it leſs fit for circulation, produces inflammations of the viſcera, fevers, and apoplexies. On account of the quantity of ſugar that enters the compoſition of chocolate, it ought to be avoided by thoſe who are ſubject to hypochondriac flatulencies; and the diſadvantages ariſing from the immoderate uſe of this drink, conſidered as prepared with warm water, are plain to every one who reflects, that the frequent uſe of warm water relaxes the organs of digeſtion, and the ſolids in general, and muſt conſequently prove pernicious.

THE method of making chocolate, now uſed by the Spaniards in America, is firſt to dry the fruit in the ſun, then to take out the kernels and roaſt them at the fire in an iron pan pierced full of holes, and afterwards grind them on a marble-ſtone, till they are brought to the conſiſtence of a paſte, mixing with them a quantity of ſugar, ſome long pepper, and vanilla, or vanelloes, a little black ſeed, that gives the chocolate an agreeable flavour. Some add cinnamon, cloves, and aniſe, and even muſk and ambergriſe, if they love perfumes.—What is made in Spain differs ſomething from that made in the Weſt-Indies, two or three kinds of flowers being added, beſides hazle-nuts and almonds; and they frequently work their paſte with orange-water, which they think gives it a greater firmneſs and conſiſtence.

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Sometimes the cakes are made up of the nut without any admixture, thoſe that uſe it being left to add what quantity they pleaſe of ſugar, cinnamon, &c. And this plain method is uſually followed in England, except that ſometimes ſugar and ſometimes vanelloes are added, ſcarce any other ingredients being known amongſt us.—It is ſaid that in New Spain there is ſuch a quantity of chocolate made as to uſe annually twelve millions of pounds of ſugar.

HERE is a ſpecies of canes or reeds remarkable for their length, their thickneſs, and the water contained in their tubes. They are uſually between twelve and ſixteen yards long; and, though there is ſome difference in their ſize, the largeſt are not above ſix inches in diameter. The wood or ſide of the tube is about half an inch in thickneſs, ſo that, when the cane is ſplit and opened, it is made to form a board near a foot and a half in breadth. From the time of their firſt appearance, till they attain their full perfection, many of the tubes contain a quantity of water; and, what is very remarkable, at full moon, they are either quite, or very nearly full; and, with the decreaſe of the moon, the water ebbs. During the decreaſe, it appears turbid, and at the full is as clear as cryſtal. Yet the water is not found in all the joints, one having water, and others not, alternately. Theſe canes, which are found, not only in South America, but in the Weſt-Indies, are an admirable proof of the indulgent care of Providence, by furniſhing the traveller, in thoſe hot countries, when fainting with heat, and at a diſtance from ſprings, or when they are dried up by the exceſſive heat, with a refreſhing draught, to quench his thirſt. This water is alſo ſaid to be an excellent preſervative againſt the

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ill conſequences of bruiſes, to which the traveller is alſo expoſed; and is therefore drank in South America by thoſe who come from the mountains, where ſuch accidents are in a manner unavoidable. Theſe canes or reeds, being cut, are left to dry, whence they acquire ſuch a degree of ſtrength as to ſerve either for rafters, beams, flooring, or even maſts for ſmall veſſels called balzas. They alſo ſerve as poles for litters, and for an infinite number of other uſes.

THE next plant we ſhall mention is the bejuco, a kind of woody cordage, of which there are two ſorts; one of which grows from the earth, and twines round the trees; the other ſtrikes it's root into certain trees, and from thence derives it's nouriſhment. Both kinds, after growing to a great height, incline again to the earth, on which they creep, till, meeting with another tree, they climb to the top of it, as before, and then again renew their inclination towards the earth; and thus form a labyrinth of ligatures. Some are even ſeen extended like a cord, from the top of one tree to another. They are ſo extremely flexible, that no bending or twiſting can break them. The ſlendereſt of them are between a quarter and half an inch in diameter; but the moſt common ſize, is a little above half an inch: there are, indeed others much thicker, but theſe are of little or no uſe, on account of the hardneſs contracted in their long growth. Theſe may be juſtly conſidered as ropes formed by the hand of nature. They are chiefly uſed for laſhing, tying, or faſtening different things together; and, by twiſting ſeveral of them in the manner of our ropes, they are made to form bridges, and even cables and hawſers for balzas and other veſſels; and are found by experience to laſt a long time in the water.

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ANOTHER remarkable vegetable is the vijahua, which is alſo found in South America, and is a leaf generally five feet in length, and two and a half in breadth, growing wild, without any ſtem. The principal rib in the middle is near half an inch broad; but all the other parts are perfectly ſoft and ſmooth. The under ſide is green, and the upper white, covered with a fine, viſcid down. It is commonly uſed for covering houſes; and alſo ſerves for packing up ſalt, fiſh, and other goods, ſent to the mountains, to ſecure them from the rain.

ANIMALS.

THE new world affords the curious naturaliſt a vaſt variety of remarkable animals, and eſpecially the Southern parts of it, where we find the mantiger, deſcribed by Dr. Tyſon as about the bigneſs of a maſtiff-dog, with a head fourteen inches long, and ſomething reſembling that of a horſe. It has large noſtrils, and it's noſe is depreſſed lower than the upper jaw. It has a large tuft of hair on the forehead and under the chin, and it's fore-feet exactly reſemble hands, having long and thick fingers and a thumb, the nails whereof are flat, but thoſe of the hinder toes are not ſo. The fore-part of it's body and the inſide of it's arms and legs are almoſt bare of hair, but the outſide is covered with hair, which is of a motley brown and olive colour. It has a navel and paps on the breaſt, feeds chiefly on fruit, and will ſit and ſupport itſelf by a ſtick in one hand, and drink out of a cup held in the other. It has two long tuſks in the upper jaw, has no tail, and is a very fierce and laſcivious animal.

THE

THE cuandu of Braſil, according to Dr. Tyſon, is a ſort of porcupine, deſcribed by Margrave and Nieuhoff, which has but four toes on the fore feet and five on the hinder ones; ſo that, as Margrave obſerves, for want of what may be called the thumb, it is but ſlow in climbing trees; but has a way of twiſting it's tail about a bough, and thereby frequently ſaves itſelf from falling.—The tamandua, another animal of Braſil, has only four toes before, but five behind, and alſo makes uſe of his tail in climbing.

THE coati mondi of Braſil is repreſented differently by different writers, but is uſually ſaid to have a ſnout about a foot long, ſmall eyes like a pig, round ears like a rat, and hands like thoſe of a monkey. It's hair is ſhort, rough, and of a blackiſh colour on the back, the reſt of the body having a mixture of black and red. This animal is ranked by Dr. Tyſon among the number of thoſe he chuſes rather to call four-handed than four-footed, of which ſome have no thumb on the fore feet, and others none on the hinder feet. Of the former ſort he reckons the vantrevan, (as it was called by the perſon who ſhewed it in London) which is a beautiful creature, has a long tail, and is very briſk and nimble.

THE ſloth is a very remarkable animal; it's body is ſhort, it's head ſmall, and it's fur long, thick, and of a greyiſh green; ſo that, when ſeen on the bough of a tree, it appears only like an excreſcence or cluſter of moſs. It is of about the ſize of a cat, but it's legs and neck are ſhort, and it's long, thick covering renders it ſo ſhapeleſs, that it ſeems only an irregular lump of living matter. It's little head, which is remarkably ugly, ſtands between it's ſhoulders. The face has ſome reſemblance of that of a monkey, but it's ſmall

heavy

heavy eyes are always half cloſed, and it has no appearance of ears. It's feet are flat and very narrow, but armed with ſharp claws for ſtriking deep into the bark of trees. This animal never changes it's place, but when compelled by neceſſity. As upon the ground it would be a prey to every other animal, it's conſtant reſidence is on a tree, where it is ſafe from all animals, but thoſe that climb the trees for the ſake of the birds. The leaves and tender part of a tree are it's food, and ſerve it both for meat and drink. It never moves to another branch, till it has devoured all the nouriſhment upon that where it is ſtationed, nor from one to another till the firſt is wholly waſted. It is remarkable that the ſloth always aſcends to the top of a tree, only baiting as he goes, before he begins his devaſtations; for, was it to begin eating upwards, when it had devoured all, it would be half ſtarved in climbing down from the top of a dead tree. But this is not all, the havock which one ſloth makes on the largeſt tree, is eaſily ſeen, for he eats not only the leaves, but all the buds and bark, leaving only a dead branch; ſo that, unleſs the ſame thing might happen by accident, this would betray him. It does ſo happen, for trees always die at the top firſt, and ſo gradually downward. Thus this animal is wonderfully taught; as it feeds the tree decays; but it's decay is in the courſe of nature. The decay ſpreads downward, and, when he has eaten the laſt of his proviſion, he is near the ground, and has only to walk to another tree; but, if it is at any diſtance, his motion is ſo ſlow, that he grows quite lean in the expedition.

As the female brings forth her young in the hollow of a tree, ſhe is led by the ſame wonderful inſtinct to conduct them to the topmoſt branches, as ſoon as they can crawl out. When ſhe is

big

big with young, ſhe climbs ſome old hollow tree, and having fixed on a convenient ſpot for them, aſcends to the very higheſt bough, and there feeds faſter than uſual. When ſhe is full, ſhe deſcends with unaccuſtomed haſte, and brings forth one, two, or three young ones. It is well ſhe is full fed, for ſhe is to ſupport theſe with her milk till they can crawl out, without having any ſupply herſelf. When ſhe retires for this purpoſe, ſhe is round and fleſhy, but a mere ſkeleton when ſhe comes out. She crawls as well as ſhe can, followed by her young, to the part where ſhe left off feeding; nor will ſhe feed by the way, however prompted by her hunger and lazineſs.

THE ſloth is the moſt timorous of all creatures, and with reaſon, for it can neither fight nor fly. While it is on it's little journey on the ground, the tread of an human foot puts it into terrors: it trembles: the head is turned about every way, and the mouth is open to cry like a young kitten. Inſignificant as this creature appears, ſays an ingenious author, there is a ſpecial providence viſibly in it's form and preſervation. Not deſigned for walking, it's claws enable it to climb: helpleſs as it is, the univerſal Provider has aſſigned it a place of ſafety, where it finds plenty of food; and, as it cannot eaſily ſeek for drink, it has no need of any. To render it the leſs obnoxious to purſuit, it's colour ſecures it even from view; and it's amazing inſtinct of feeding, from the top to the bottom of the tree, proves a deſigning and directing hand.

THE opoſſum, which is a native of Braſil and other parts of America, is a very remarkable animal, in ſhape and ſize like a badger, but of a lighter colour, and with a longer tail. What is moſt wonderful, in this creature, is the bag or purſe

BRITISH MUSEUM
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The Opossum

purſe in the ſkin of it's belly, to which it's young ones retire and hide themſelves in caſe of danger. In the male opoſſum however this pouch is not diſcernible, only the ſkin in that place, according to Dr. Tyſon's obſervation, ſeemed to be looſer, ſo that he could thruſt it in with his finger, and by turning it round form a ſort of bag, but which, on withdrawing his finger, returned to it's former poſition; and for this reaſon the doctor leaves it as an uncertain point, to be determined by thoſe who live where theſe animals are bred, whether this part of the ſkin is capable of being formed upon occaſion into a pouch, and whether they ever obſerve the male opoſſum to receive the young as the female does *.

PERHAPS the reader will not be diſpleaſed if we are a little more particular in our account of an animal ſo remarkable, which we ſhall chiefly take from the doctor already cited, and Mr. Cowper, who have both publiſhed their anatomical obſervations on the opoſſum in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. That which Dr. Tyſon diſſected (whereof we have given a figure drawn from the life) meaſured two feet ſeven inches from the extremity of the noſe to the tip of the tail, the length of the head was ſix inches, that of the tail twelve, and the circumference of the body fifteen inches and a half when dead, but, when alive and well, it ſeemed much thicker. It's fore legs were ſix inches long, the hinder ones only four and a half, and

* Dr. Derham, ſpeaking of the care that animals have of their young, mentions the opoſſum and it's curious bag, quoting Dr. Tyſon, as we have done; who alſo takes notice of the dog-fiſh, (from Oppian) which upon any ſtorm or danger receives it's young ones into it's belly: and the ſame is ſaid of the ſquatina and glaucus.

the tail near the root was three inches in compaſs. The apertures of the eye-lids were not horizontal, but lying in a ſtraight line from the eyes to the noſe. The ears were not ſharp, but of a roundiſh figure, and about an inch and an half in length, which was almoſt the dimenſion of the mouth when opened, from one corner to the extremity of the noſe. The hinder feet had four fingers armed with long crooked nails, and a perfect thumb, ſet off at a diſtance from the range of the other fingers, as in a human creature; and the fore feet had five long claws or fingers, equally ranged with each other, and a hooked nail at the end of each finger. This formation of the legs, feet, and nails ſeems very advantageous to the animal in climbing up trees, which it does very nimbly in purſuit of birds, a prey it is extremely fond of, though that is not it's only food. Theſe fingers and claws are naked, and without hair, the ſkin being of a reddiſh colour. The palms, if dilated, which the creature does in climbing, are large, but ſo contrived as to be capable of contraction, which is likewiſe the caſe in it's walking; and, that the palms might be the better defended from injury, at the ſetting on of each toe there is in the palms a protuberant, fleſhy, and almoſt cartilaginous body. In feeding it makes uſe of it's fore feet to bring the food to it's mouth, as creatures of the monkey and ſquirrel kind. The tail is without hair, except for a little way near the root, from whence it tapers to the extremity, and is covered with a regular order of ſmall whitiſh ſcales, which for the moſt part are of an oblong hexagonal figure. Between each there is obſervable a ſmall ſkin or membrane, in which they are fixed, and which is of a darker colour. The ears of this creature are bare and without hair, and, though

though ſoft and ſlender, and in colour and ſubſtance almoſt reſembling the wing of a bat, are erect, and of an oval figure. It's upper jaw is ſomewhat longer than the under, it's eyes ſmall, black, vivid, and exerted when alive, but very much ſunk when dead. The neck is ſhort, the breaſt broad, and it has whiſkers like thoſe of a cat. On it's back and ſides it is of an aſh-colour, or dappled with black hairs in ſpots intermixed with white; but it's belly is more of an amber colour.

UNDER the belly, between the two hinder legs, is a ſlit or aperture, about two inches long, but capable of greater extenſion, by dilating it with the fingers; and this the animal can ſo exactly cloſe and contract, that the eye does not readily diſcern it. On each ſide of it there is a reduplication of the ſkin inwards, which forms a hairy bag, though the hairs are very thinly ſet, ſo that the ſkin is almoſt every-where to be diſcovered. This is the marſupium, bag, or purſe, already ſpoken of, which all authors agree is intended to preſerve the animal's young, and ſecure them againſt danger; and the contrivance of nature in forming and adapting this part to that end is admirable, there being two ſtrong bones, not to be met with in any other ſkeleton, which have no motion nearer or farther from each other, but ſtand always at an equal diſtance; and theſe bones are furniſhed with four pair of muſcles, over which runs another pair, which perform the office of a pulley. In the male opoſſum, which Mr. Cowper diſſected, the marſupium was not perceptible, nor the muſcles belonging to it; but that gentleman, as well as Dr. Tyſon, obſerved the bones juſt mentioned, and muſcles running from them to the hinder legs, which are undoubtedly ſerviceable to the creature in drawing up it's

body. This marſupium, the doctor found, is a membranous body, not very thick, though conſiſting of ſeveral coats, which perform the office of motion and ſecretion; for the cavity of the pouch is ſomewhat hairy, and the doctor obſerved the hairs matted together by a yellowiſh ſubſtance, which ouzed out of the cutaneous glands. This liquor, diſcharged into the pouch from the glandulous coat, was of a ſtrong ſcent, and had more of the peculiar fœtor of the animal than any part beſides; but, after the ſkin, together with the pouch, had been kept for ſome days, and was grown dry, there was ſo great an alteration in the ſmell, that what was before very diſagreeable, was now become a perfect perfume, reſembling exactly the ſmell of muſk. In this pouch moſt authors place the mammæ or teats, but Dr. Tyſon found none, nor even on the outward ſkin, as is uſual in other multiparous animals; though he imagines the opoſſum, the ſubject of his diſſection, might never have had a litter, and for that reaſon the teats might eſcape his notice.

THE opoſſum, being a carnivorous animal, and particularly fond of birds, is endued by nature with a faculty of twiſting it's tail about a ſmall branch of a tree, and thereby ſtretching itſelf out to rob a neſt, or obtain it's deſired food: nay, by this means it may be ſaid to fly; for, hanging thus by the tail, and ſwinging it's body to and fro, it can fling itſelf into a neighbouring tree, where it's tail is ſure to faſten on the firſt bough it meets with, if it otherwiſe miſſes it's footing; and, it's hinder feet being made like hands, and furniſhed with a thumb, it thereby the more readily raiſes it's body.

WE come now to an animal of ſuch a magnitude and ſtrength, as, if not atteſted by authors of unqueſtionable veracity, we ſhould not have ventured to deſcribe or mention. This is the cuntur or condor of Peru, which Sir Hans Sloane (from the account of captain Strong, commander of a South-Sea ſhip) has taken notice of in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. This is an animal of the feathered race, and of ſuch an amazing bigneſs, that the captain's men, who ſhot one and meaſured it, found it was ſixteen feet from the extremity of one wing to the other. One of it's feathers was two feet four inches long, the quill-part near ſix inches, it's weight three drams and above ſeventeen grains, and was concave on one ſide and convex on the other. The ſeamen ſhot it as it ſat on a clift by the ſea-ſide, and eat it, taking it for a ſpecies of turkey. They were told by the Spaniards that they were afraid of theſe birds, leſt they ſhould prey upon or injure their children.

TO this account it ſeems proper to add the teſtimony of Acoſta and Garcilaſſo de la Vega, who ſay that the fowls corruptly called condor by the Spaniards meaſure fifteen or ſixteen feet from the end of one wing to the other; and that their beak is ſtrong enough to tear off the hide or rip open the bowels of an ox. Two of them will attack a cow or bull, and devour him; and it has happened that one of them has aſſaulted and eaten boys of ten or twelve years of age. But it is obſerved, that nature, to temper and allay their fierceneſs, has denied them the talons which are given to the eagle, their feet being tipped with claws like a hen. They are black and white, like a magpye, and on the fore part of their head have a comb not pointed like that of a cock,

but rather even, in the form of a razor. It is very well, ſays our author, there are but few of them, otherwiſe they would much deſtroy the cattle *.

DE ULLOA obſerves, that the condor reſembles in it's colours and appearance the gallinazo, and ſometimes ſoars from the higheſt mountains, ſo as to be almoſt out of ſight. As it is ſeldom ſeen in low places, a ſubtile air ſeems beſt to agree with it; though ſome that have been tamed when young, live in the villages and plantations. They are extremely carnivorous, and are frequently known to fly away with the lambs that feed on the heaths upon the ſides of the mountains. This our author confirms from his own obſervation; for, ſeeing, on a hill adjoining to one on which he ſtood, a flock of ſheep in great confuſion, he perceived a condor flying upwards from them, with a lamb in it's claws. When at ſome height he dropped it; but, following it, took it up, and let it fall a ſecond time, and then winged his way out of ſight, for fear of the Indians, who, at the cry of the boys and barking of the dogs, were running towards the place. On ſome of the mountains, this bird is frequently ſeen; and, as it preys on the flocks, the Indians make uſe of all their endeavours to catch it. One of theſe ways is killing an old cow, or ſome other beaſt, and rubbing the fleſh with the

* Dr. Derham obſerves, that creatures leſs uſeful, or by their voracity pernicious, have commonly fewer young, or ſeldomer bring forth; of which many inſtances might be given in voracious beaſts and birds, but there is one (ſays he) very peculiar, which is the cuntur of Peru, a moſt pernicious bird, and therefore very rare, being ſeldom ſeen, and only juſt enough of them to keep up the ſpecies, but not to overcharge the world.

juice

juice of ſome potent herbs, which they afterwards carry away; otherwiſe the bird would not touch the fleſh; and, to take off the ſmell, they bury the fleſh till it becomes putrid, and then expoſe it; when the condors allured by the ſmell of the carcaſe fly to it, and feed on it greedily; till, the herbs operating, they become ſenſeleſs and incapable of motion; when the Indians ſeizing the opportunity, deſtroy them. They likewiſe catch them with ſprings, laid near ſome fleſh; but ſuch is the ſtrength of this bird, that ſometimes, with the ſtroke of it's wing, it knocks down the man who approaches it. Their wing alſo ſerves the condors as a ſhield, by which they ward off blows, without receiving any viſible hurt.

THE gallinazo is about the ſize of a pea-hen, but the head and neck, are ſomewhat larger. From the crop to the baſe of the bill, it has, inſtead of feathers, a wrinkled, rough, glandulous ſkin, covered with ſmall warts and tubercles. It's feathers are black, as is alſo it's ſkin: it's bill is well proportioned, ſtrong, and a little crooked. Theſe birds are ſo numerous and tame, that, in the city of Carthagena, it is not uncommon to ſee the ridges of the houſes covered with them; and they have ſo quick a ſcent, that they are ſaid to ſmell a dead body at the diſtance of ten or twelve miles, and never leave it till they have intirely reduced it to a ſkeleton. Though their legs are ſtrong and well-proportioned, they hop along on the ground, in a very aukward manner; for they have the toes forward, turning inwards, and one in the inſide turning a little backwards; ſo that the feet interfere, which occaſions their walking ſo badly. Each toe has long and thick claws. At their firſt riſing they fly heavily, but ſoon after dart out of ſight. Theſe birds are of great ſervice, on account

of their picking up all kinds of filth, greedily devouring any dead animal, the eggs of the allegators, and whatever is moſt offenſive: hence their multiplicity, in ſuch hot climates, is a merciful diſpenſation of Providence, as otherwiſe the putrefaction, cauſed by the exceſſive heat, would render the air unfit for human beings.

THERE is another ſpecies of theſe birds, ſomewhat larger than the former. In ſome of theſe, the head, and part of the neck, are white; in ſome red, and in others a mixture of both theſe colours. At a ſmall diſtance from the crop, they have a ruff of white feathers, and are equally fierce and carnivorous with the former. Theſe are called the kings of the gallinazoes, they being few in number, and it being obſerved, that, when one of them has faſtened on a dead beaſt, none of the other approach, till he has firſt eaten the eyes, which is generally the part he begins with firſt, and is gone to another place, when they all flock to the prey.

IN Braſil we find a great number of curious birds, particularly the anhima, or unicorn bird, ſo called becauſe it has a horn two or three inches long, growing out of his forehead, but blunt and brittle, and therefore of no defence to the creature.

ONE of the moſt extraordinary of all the birds ſeems to be the tulcan or preacher, which is of the ſize of a pigeon, but has much longer legs; it's tail is ſhort, and it's plumage is of a dark colour, ſpotted with blue, purple, yellow, and other colours, that have a beautiful effect on the dark ground. It's head greatly exceeds all proportion, with reſpect to it's body; but this is neceſſary to enable it to ſupport it's bill, which is no leſs than ſix or eight inches from the root to the point: the lower mandible cloſes with the upper through the whole length,

length, and both diminiſh inſenſibly to the end, when it ſuddenly bends and terminates in a ſtrong, ſharp point. The tongue is formed like a feather, and, as well as the inſide of it's mouth, is of a deep red. The bill is variegated with all the bright colours that adorn the plumage of other birds: at the baſe, and alſo at the convexity, it is generally of a light yellow, forming a kind of ribbon, half an inch broad; and the reſt is of a fine deep purple, except two ſtreaks near the root, of a rich ſcarlet. The name of preacher, has been given to this bird, from it's being accuſtomed to perch on the top of a tree, above the other birds, his companions, while they are aſleep, and making a noiſe, like ill-articulated ſounds, moving his head to the right and left, in order to keep off the birds of prey from ſeizing the others. They are eaſily rendered ſo tame, as to run about the houſe, and come when called. Their uſual food is fruit; but the tame eat other things, and, in general, whatever is given them.

ANOTHER bird of Braſil is called the cocoi, which is ſhaped much like our ſtorks, and has a moſt curious variety of colours on it's feathers.—The guara, which the Europeans call the ſea-curlew, is ſurpriſing for it's often changing it's colour, being firſt black, then aſh coloured, next white, afterwards ſcarlet, and laſtly crimſon, which grows deeper and richer the longer the bird lives.

PARROTS, parrokeets, and various birds of the ſame ſpecies, are there as common as we have pigeons; and though ſome of them are moſt beautifully feathered, they are in too great plenty to be eſteemed by the natives, except now and then to uſe their feathers as ornaments.—Of the eatable fowls they have turkeys very large and delicious; and the ſame may be ſaid of their other kinds of poultry,

eſpecially a white ſort of hens, whoſe feathers they dye of a fine green, and mix with thoſe of other birds, which they wear about their heads and middle. They have likewiſe plenty of ducks and ſuch-like water-fowl, but it is ſaid the Braſilians will not eat them, thinking them infectious: neither will they eat any kind of eggs, eſteeming them unwholſome, if not poiſonous; and are ſurpriſed to ſee the Europeans ſo fond of them, and eat them without injury.

THE bats of Braſil (like thoſe of the Eaſt-Indies) are reported to be of a prodigious ſize, and ſo bold and dangerous, that they will get into houſes in the night, and ſuck the blood of perſons whom they find aſleep.

NEW CASTILE, and particularly Carthagena, is infeſted with ſuch an infinite number of bats, that, after ſun-ſet, when they begin to fly, they may, without the leaſt exaggeration, be ſaid to cover the ſtreets like clouds. We have already ſaid, that thoſe of Braſil ſuck human blood; and Don Antonio de Ulloa ſays, that thoſe of Carthagena are moſt dextrous bleeders, both of men and cattle: for, the inhabitants leaving the windows of their chambers open, on account of the exceſſive heats, the bats get in; and, if they find a perſon aſleep, with the foot naked, they open a vein with all the art of a moſt expert ſurgeon, ſucking the blood till they are ſatiated; after which it flows out of the orifice, to the great danger of the perſon's life. The reaſon why the puncture is not felt, he adds, is attributed to the gentle and refreſhing agitation of the air, by the bat's wings, throwing the perſon into a deeper ſleep, and thus preventing his feeling the ſlight puncture. This likewiſe happens to horſes, aſſes, and mules; but beaſts of a thicker ſkin are leſs expoſed to it.

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The truth of this account is confirmed by M. Condamine, who ſays, that there are ſome of a monſtrous ſize, and that they have intirely deſtroyed, at Borja and other places, all the black cattle, which the miſſionaries had introduced there.

We think the ſeveral ſpecies of ſheep to be met with in Peru are worthy the notice of the curious, particularly thoſe called lamas by the natives. Their heads are ſmall in proportion to their bodies, ſomewhat reſembling both that of a horſe and a ſheep, but the upper lip is cleft in the middle, like that of a hare, through which they can ſpit from them to the diſtance of ten paces; and this ſpittle, it is ſaid, if it falls on any one's fleſh, makes a reddiſh ſpot, which is followed by an intolerable itching. Their necks are long, bowing downwards like the camel's; which animal, except the bunch on the back, they pretty much reſemble. Their height is from four feet to four and a half, and they generally carry a hundred weight, walking with their heads erect, looking grave and majeſtic, and with ſuch a regular pace that it is ſcarce to be altered by beating. Theſe ſheep eat but little, and ſeldom or never drink, ſo that they are very eaſily kept, grazing upon a ſhort herb like a ruſh, with which the mountains of that country are covered. It ſeems they are uſed by the Spaniards in the mines to carry ore to the mills; and, when they are once acquainted with their ſtage, they want no guide or driver. Above the foot they have a ſpur, which they make uſe of to hold by among the rocks, ſo that they are wonderfully ſure-footed. Their wool has a ſtrong ſcent, and ſomewhat diſagreeable; it is long, white, grey, and fine.

The vicunnas of Peru are ſhaped much like the lamas, only they are ſmaller and nimbler,

and their wool, being extraordinary fine, is very much valued. Theſe creatures are ſometimes hunted in the following manner: many Indians get together to drive them into ſome narrow paſs, where they have made ropes faſt acroſs, three or four feet from the ground, on which are hung bits of wool and cloth. At the motion of theſe the animals are ſo frightened, that they dare not go any farther; ſo that they crowd together, and the hunters kill them with ſtones made faſt to the end of leather thongs. If any of thoſe creatures called guanacos happen to be amongſt them, they leap over the cords, and the vicunnas follow them. The guanacos are larger and more corpulent, and in ſome parts are called vicachas.

OF the animals found on the coaſts of America, particularly Braſil, Terra Firma, and many of the neighbouring iſlands, we know of none more deſerving the attention of the curious than the turtle or tortoiſe. But it is obſerved there are two kinds of tortoiſes, the land and the ſea tortoiſe; and this latter again is of four kinds, that is, the trunk turtle, the loggerhead, the hawkſbill, and the green turtle; but it is only one ſort, called the hawkſbill, which furniſhes that beautiful ſhell * ſo much admired in Europe. It's ſhell is thick, and conſiſts of two parts, the one covering the back, the other the belly, and the two are joined together at the ſides by ſtrong ligaments, which yet allow of a little motion. In the fore part is an aperture for the head and four legs, and be-

* Mr. Cateſby obſerves, that the hard ſtrong covering which incloſes all ſorts of tortoiſes is very improperly called a ſhell, being of a perfect bony contexture, but covered on the outſide with ſcales, or rather plates, of a horny ſubſtance, which the workmen call tortoiſe-ſhell.

hind

hind for the hind legs and tail. We are told that the under ſhell alone is uſed, which they ſeparate from the upper by making a little fire underneath, and as ſoon as it is warm it is eaſily taken off in laminæ or leaves with the point of a knife, without killing the animal, which (it is ſaid) being turned to ſea again acquires a new ſhell. Theſe leaves are thirteen in number, eight of them flat, and five a little bent; and four of the flat ones are ſometimes a foot long, and ſix or ſeven inches broad. The beſt tortoiſe-ſhell is thick, clear, tranſparent, and ſprinkled with brown and white; but, when uſed in marquetry, and ſuch-like works, the workmen give it what colour they pleaſe by laying coloured leaves underneath it. It may be faſhioned in what manner the workman pleaſes, by ſoftening it in warm water, and then putting it into a mold; for then, by the aſſiſtance of a ſtrong iron preſs, it will take any impreſſion, and may afterwards be adorned and embelliſhed at pleaſure.

OF the four kinds of turtle, only one of them is proper for food; this is the green turtle, which is generally eſteemed, by the greateſt part of thoſe who are acquainted with it's taſte, to be the moſt delicious of all eatables; and, at the ſame time, nothing can be more wholſome; for the people of the Centurion fed on this laſt ſpecies near four months; and conſequently, had it been in any degree noxious, it's ill effects could not have eſcaped obſervation. The females go on ſhore to lay their eggs, which they generally depoſit in a large hole in the ſand, juſt above the high-water mark, covering them up, and leaving them to be hatched by the heat of the ſun. Mr. Smith informs us, that he has ſeen, upon opening one of them, at leaſt two hundred eggs, exactly round, taken out of it, about forty of which were incloſed in whitiſh tough

tough ſkins, with a ſubſtance like jelly round the yolk, and were ready to be laid all at one time; and Mr. Rogers obſerves, that he ſaw, at ſome iſlands in the South-Sea, a turtle that had at leaſt eight hundred eggs in it's belly, a hundred and fifty of which were ſkinned, and ready for laying. In about twenty-five days after laying, the eggs are hatched by the heat of the ſun; and then the little turtles, being as big as young quails, run directly to the ſea, without any guide to lead them or ſhew them the way. When any of theſe ſmall ones are caught before they get into the ſea, they are generally fried whole, and are ſaid to be delicious eating.

THOSE who watch on ſhore for the turtles, turn them on their backs, which is not performed without ſome difficulty, for they are very heavy, and ſtruggle hard. After this, if they are not far enough on ſhore, they haul them above high-water mark, and leave them till it ſuits their convenience to take them away; for, when once they are on their backs, they are not able to ſtir from the place. The writer of commodore Anſon's voyage, under the name of Mr. Walter, ſays, that, in the heat of day, they often ſaw great numbers of them faſt aſleep, floating on the ſurface of the water; when they uſually ſent out their boat, with a man in the bow, who was a dextrous diver; and as the boat came within a few yards of the turtle, the diver plunged into the water, taking care to riſe cloſe upon it; when, ſeizing the ſhell, near the tail, and preſſing down the hinder parts, the turtle was thereby awakened, and began to ſtrike with it's feet; which motion ſupported both it and the diver, till the boat came up, and took them in.

NEAR

NEAR ſeveral of the American iſlands, are a kind of green meadows, at the bottom of the ſea, where it is not many fathoms deep; and there, when the weather is fine, and the water ſmooth, they may be ſeen creeping upon this green carpet. When they have fed ſufficiently, they take their progreſs into the mouths of freſh water rivers. A turtle of an ordinary ſize, and of the beſt ſort, will yield, at leaſt, two hundred pounds of fleſh; and their eggs, which are of the ſize of a hen's egg, but as round as a ball, will keep for a conſiderable time.

THE turtles being amphibious, they feed on graſs and weeds, as well in the water as on the land; but they uſually make their reſidence and find their aliment in the above mentioned meadows at the bottom of the ſea. After they have fed ſufficiently, they take their progreſs into the outlets of rivers for freſh water or air, and then return to their former ſtation. In the intermiſſion of their feeding they frequently float with their heads above the ſurface of the water, unleſs they are alarmed by any appearance of danger, in which caſe they ſuddenly plunge to the bottom; for, the tortoiſe having the benefit of lungs, ſhe can diſtend herſelf by an influx of air, and be brought to an equilibrium with the water, like a frog; and, like other amphibious creatures, ſhe is inabled to ſwim by the impulſe and retraction of her paws, though for the generality ſhe contents herſelf with creeping.

SHELLS in general make a very curious part of natural hiſtory, on account of their great variety, the uncouth make of ſome, and the beautiful colours and pretty ornaments of others; but, as Dr. Derham obſerves, it would be endleſs to deſcend to particulars, and therefore he only mentions

tions that of the tortoiſe. But, beſides the beauty of this covering, it is an inſtance of the excellent proviſion the wiſe Creator has made for the good of the animal world, being a ſtout guard to it's body, and affording a ſafe retreat for it's head, legs, and tail, which it withdraws within the ſhell upon any danger. And it is worth remarking, that the ſhell ſupplies the place of all bones in the creature, except thoſe of the extreme parts, the head and neck, and the four legs and tail: ſo that at firſt it is ſomewhat ſurpriſing to ſee a complete ſkeleton conſiſting of ſo ſmall a number of bones, and yet thoſe abundantly ſufficient for the uſe of the animal.

THERE remains another remarkable thing to be mentioned concerning theſe creatures, which is, that for two or three months in the year they leave their common haunts, where they chiefly feed, and reſort to other places to lay their eggs; and it is thought they eat nothing during that ſeaſon, ſo that both males and females grow very lean. This however is certain, that the land-tortoiſe, who is formed much in the ſame manner as thoſe of the ſea, is able to ſubſiſt ſeveral months without food; for thoſe which are kept in gardens out of curioſity in England are obſerved to bury themſelves in the ground at the approach of winter, and there remain in a kind of ſleepy ſtate till the return of the ſpring invites them to leave their ſubterraneous retirement; for which, according to Dr. Derham, they are admirably adapted by the ſtructure of their heart and lungs *.

AFTER

* To the long abſtinence of brute animals our author adds one or two inſtances of extraordinary abſtinence among mankind;

AFTER the tortoiſe it is natural enough to mention the armadillo, an animal found in the Weſt-Indies, and in Guinea, which has it's back covered with a hard ſhell, that ſeems to be buckled to it like a coat of armour. It's tail is long like a rat's, and is alſo covered with a ſcaly ſhell. The whole creature

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kind; and firſt that of Martha Taylor, born in Derbyſhire, who by a blow on the back fell into ſuch a proſtration of appetite, that ſhe took little ſuſtenance but ſome drops with a feather for thirteen months, and ſlept very little too all the time. The Dr. then mentions the caſe of S. Chilton of Tinſbury near Bath, who often ſlept for ſeveral weeks together; which caſe being very extraordinary, we hope an extract of it from the Philoſophical Tranſactions will not be unacceptable to the reader. This Chilton was a labouring man, about twenty-five years of age, not fat but fleſhy, and on the 13th of May 1694, without any viſible cauſe, fell into a profound ſleep, out of which he could by no means be rouſed by thoſe about him, but after a month's time he roſe of himſelf, put on his cloaths, and went about his buſineſs of huſbandry as uſual. From this time till about the 9th of April 1696, he remained free from any extraordinary drowſineſs, but then fell into his ſleeping fit again. After ſome days his friends were prevailed on to try what remedies might effect; and accordingly one Mr. Gibbs, an apothecary, bled, bliſtered, cupped, and ſcarified him, and uſed all the external irritating medicines he could think of, but all to no purpoſe. Victuals ſtood by him (as before) which he eat now and then, but no-body ever ſaw him eat or evacuate, though he did both as he had occaſion; and ſometimes they found him faſt aſleep with the pot in his hand in bed, and ſometimes with his mouth full of meat. In this manner he lay till the 7th of Auguſt, which was ſeventeen weeks from the time when he began to ſleep; and then he awaked, put on his cloaths, and walked about the room, not knowing he had ſlept ſo long, till, going into the fields, he found people buſy in getting in their harveſt, and he remembered that, when he fell aſleep, they were ſowing their oats and barley. From this time he remained well till the 17th of Auguſt 1697, when he complained of a ſhivering and a coldneſs in his back, vomited once or twice, and the ſame day fell faſt aſleep again. Dr. Oliver (from whom this account is taken)

creature is not much bigger than a little pig, which it reſembles in it's ſnout, ears, legs, and feet. It has four toes before, and five behind.

AMONG the fiſhes to be met with in the ſeas of South America, particularly on the coaſt of Braſil, is a remarkable one called the globe-fiſh,

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taken) went to ſee him, and felt his pulſe, which was then very regular; he was in a breathing ſweat, and had an agreeable warmth all over his body. The doctor then put his mouth to his ear, and called him as loud as he could ſeveral times by his name, pulled him by the ſhoulders, pinched his noſe, ſtopped his mouth and noſe together, but to no purpoſe, the man not giving the leaſt ſign of his being ſenſible. Upon this the doctor held a phial with ſpirit of ſal armoniac under one of his noſtrils, and injected about half an ounce of it up the ſame noſtril, but it only made his noſe run, and his eyelids ſhiver and tremble a little. Finding no ſucceſs this way, the doctor crammed that noſtril with powder of white hellebore, and waited ſome time to ſee what effect it would produce; but the man did not diſcover the leaſt uneaſineſs. The doctor then left him, fully ſatisfied that he was really aſleep, and no ſullen counterfeit, as ſome people ſuppoſed. About ten days after, an apothecary took fourteen ounces of blood from his arm, tied it again, and left him as he found him, without his making the leaſt motion all the while. The latter end of September Dr. Oliver ſaw him again, and a gentleman ran a large pin into his arm to the very bone, but he gave no ſigns of being ſenſible what was done to him. In this manner he lay till the 19th of November, when his mother, hearing him make a noiſe, ran immediately up to him, and found him eating. She aſked him, how he did? Very well, he ſaid, thank God: And again ſhe aſked him, which he liked beſt, bread and butter, or bread and cheeſe? He anſwered, bread and cheeſe; whereupon the woman overjoyed ran down to acquaint his brother with it, and, both coming up again preſently, they found him as faſt aſleep as ever. Thus he continued till the end of January or beginning of February, at which time he awaked perfectly well, remembering nothing that had happened all the while. It was obſerved, that he was very little altered in his fleſh, only he complained the cold pinched him more than uſual, and ſo went about his buſineſs as at other times.

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from it's orbicular form; or the ſea hedge-hog, as being beſet all round with large ſpikes like thoſe of the land one, whereby it bids defiance to all fiſhes of prey, and has a ſurpriſing facility of moving itſelf forward on the water by the contraction and motion of thoſe prickles.

But, of all the animals in theſe ſeas, there ſeems to be none more curious than the ſea-bladder, which has not been taken notice of by many authors. It is not unfitly ſtiled a bladder, being in moſt reſpects like one, and ſwimming on the ſurface of the waves. It is of an oblong roundiſh form, five or ſix inches in diameter, has a ſkin very thin and tranſparent, and, like a bubble raiſed on the water, reflects all the colours of the ſky. The inſide is only filled with air, except about a ſpoonful of water which ſerves to balance it; and underneath it has a ſet of fibres of a vermicular form, which the creature extends or contracts, and thereby moves itſelf along. On it's back it has a kind of plaited membrane, which it likewiſe expands or folds up at pleaſure, in order to take in more or leſs wind; and it is only by theſe two laſt circumſtances that they are known to move ſpontaneouſly, except when the wind is too ſtrong for them to reſiſt, by which they are frequently driven on ſhore and taken.

In the ſeas we are ſpeaking of (as well as in ſome others) is to be found the little fiſh called the remora, or ſucking-fiſh, reſembling a herring, with creſt and fins, having a ſucker about two inches long on the top of his head. The mouth is wide, the eyes ſmall, the under jaw longer than the upper, with two rows of ſmall ſharp teeth. This fiſh was much talked of amongſt the ancients, who ſuppoſed (as appears from Pliny) that, by ſticking to the ſide of a ſhip, it was able to ſtop the veſſel under full ſail,

ſail, or a whale in ſwimming *. But, as Mr. Cateſby obſerves, a number of theſe fiſhes can do no more than ſhells, or corals, and other foulneſſes of the the ſame bulk, which make a ſhip ſomewhat ſlower; and in the ſame manner they may be ſome ſmall hindrance to a whale.

MR. GROSE informs us, that theſe fiſh faſten upon the ſhark by means of an oval-ſhaped membrane, of a texture admirably adapted to that purpoſe, with which they ſtick ſo cloſe to the ſkin of the ſhark, commonly on it's ſides or back, as not to part with it, even when it is taken; and it is difficult to ſeparate them by the utmoſt ſtrength of the hands, if pulled againſt the grain of the ſucker; but, ſliding them on forward with the grain, they come off eaſily enough; and this force of adheſion continues while there is any life in them, as may be proved on applying them to a table, or any hard ſubſtance. It doubtleſs annoys the ſhark in the nature of vermin, drawing it's ſuſtenance from the ſlimy oozing of it's body, while it can neither ſhake it off, nor come at it to deſtroy it. This fiſh is not fit for food.

To this we may add the pilot-fiſh, which is ſeldom above a foot or a foot and a half long, but is extremely beautiful, it being ſtreaked tranſverſly, with blue and a yellowiſh brown, that have a very pleaſing effect in the water, but loſe much of their lively gloſs when taken out of it. Theſe fiſh, ſays Mr. Groſe, are ofteneſt ſeen in ſmall ſhoals, ſwimming immediately a-head of the ſhark, or near him. When a bait is thrown out for the ſhark, they cluſter about it, without attempt-

* Hence they give it the name of remora, from remoror, to ſtop or hinder.

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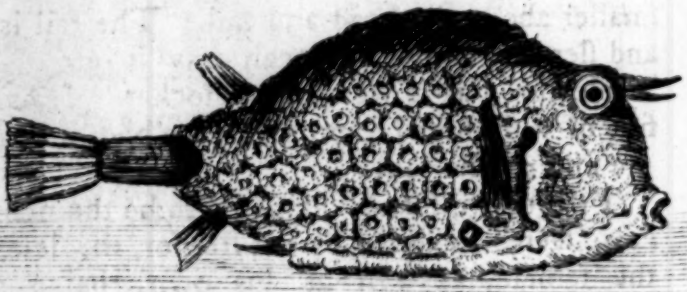
Old Wife fish.



Old Husband fish.

ing to nibble it; but, by their motions to and ſo, ſeem to guide the ſhark towards it; from whence they obtain the name of pilot-fiſh; when in company with the ſhark, they ſeldom take the ſmall hook; but, when they have loſt this their conſort, or follow a ſhip, either ſingly, or in ſhoals, they ſometimes bite and are caught. They are eſteemed, for their ſize, the moſt delicious eating the ocean affords, and have nothing of that dryneſs attributed to the other fiſh of the ocean.

In the ſeas of South America, and eſpecially about the tropics, are often ſeen ſwimming in ſhoals thoſe fiſhes we call old wives * and old huſbands, which indeed make a very remarkable figure. The former is commonly about ten inches long, and five in breadth; has a very ſmall mouth, with ſharp teeth, a large eye placed high on it's head, two noſtrils or vent-holes under the fore part of the eye, a riſing ſharp back, the belly flattiſh, and the whole fiſh is covered with a hard cruſtaceous ſkin, of a brown colour, but curiouſly marked with indented ſpots, which are large on the ſides, and ſmaller about the head and tail. The tail is long and ſlender, and the fiſh can draw it into it's body at pleaſure, as it were into a ſocket. It has four fins of a lighter brown than the body, as is alſo the end of the tail.

The old huſband, ſuppoſed to be the male ſpecies, ſeems deſigned by nature for the defence of the female, as well as his own, being armed with two ſharp horns on the fore part of his head, growing from a thick baſis, about three quarters of an inch in length; and, though but ſlender,

* Paſcoe Thomas ſays they found plenty of theſe fiſh (amongſt others that he mentions) at the iſland of St. Catharine's on the coaſt of Braſil.

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they are ſo ſtrong, that he is capable of giving dangerous wounds to the ſides of an enemy. His hinder part is likewiſe well guarded with two long fins like his horns, one on each ſide of the belly near the tail; and, when cloſely chaced, he draws up his tail, and bids defiance with his horns to his purſuers. Theſe two fiſhes ſwim together in company, and, except the horns, they pretty much reſemble each other.

BUT to return to the land, where we ſhall find ſome remarkable animals not yet mentioned; and firſt it may not be improper to take notice of what ſome travellers relate concerning the various kinds of monkeys to be met with in the Andes and other parts of South America. Some of them are ſaid to be merry, others melancholy; ſome nimble, and others heavy; ſome hairy, others almoſt naked; of themſelves timorous, but taking courage if a man ſeems to be afraid.

ALMOST all the woods and foreſts of South America are filled with different kinds of them, of various colours as black, brown, and inclining to red; there is alſo the ſame diverſity in their ſize, ſome being a yard long, others half a yard, and others ſcarce a foot. The different ſpecies of theſe animals, ſkipping in troops from tree to tree, hanging from the branches, and playing a thouſand gambols, and, in other places, ſix, eight or more of them, linked together, in order to paſs a river, with the dams, carrying their young on their ſhoulders, or throwing themſelves into the oddeſt geſtures, muſt appear fictitious to thoſe who have not actually ſeen them. The fleſh of all theſe different kinds is highly valued by the Negroes, eſpecially that of the red; but, however delicate the meat may be, ſays our author, the ſight of them, is enough to make the ſtomach

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abhor them; for, being ſcalded when dead, in order to take off the hair, the ſkin is contracted by the heat, and, when thoroughly cleaned, looks perfectly white, and nearly reſembles a child of about two or three years of age, when crying: yet the ſcarcity of food, in many parts of America, renders their fleſh valuable; and not only the Negroes, but the Creoles, and even the Europeans themſelves, eat them without ſcruple. It is highly probable, that moſt of thoſe people who have been ſtigmatiſed by the firſt diſcoverers with the name of Cannibals, obtained it on account of their eating theſe animals, which when thus dreſſed, were miſtaken for children, and the larger kind for men and women. Indeed, there can be no doubt of this being the caſe, ſince moſt of the nations, who have been charged with living upon human fleſh, have been found, upon a better acquaintance with them, to be of a mild and benevolent diſpoſition, ready to grant their aid to all who wanted their aſſiſtance; unleſs it be ſuppoſed that the firſt diſcoverers, merely from a ſpirit of malevolence, repreſented them in ſuch odious colours, in order to give a ſanction to their cruelties, and to have a plauſible pretence for plundering and murdering thoſe who had never injured them.

ALLIGATORS are very common, both in South America, the Weſt-Indies, and indeed in great part of North America; but they ſeem to abound no-where in greater numbers, than on the river Guayaquil, in Peru. Theſe amphibious animals, that live both in the rivers and adjacent plains, when tired with fiſhing, leave the water, to baſk themſelves in the ſun, and then appear rather like rotten wood, thrown aſhore by the current, than living creatures; but, upon perceiving any veſſel near them, they immediately throw themſelves into the

the water. They are the largeſt animals of the lizard kind, ſome of them being here of ſo monſtrous a ſize as to exceed fifteen feet in length. Of this animal we have given ſome account in treating of the crocrodile of Egypt; and ſeveral writers believe the two animals are of the ſame ſpecies, while others maintain that there is a conſiderable difference between them. The head of the alligator is long, turning up at the noſe, like the ſnout of a hog, and furniſhed with two rows of ſtrong pointed teeth. His eyes are large, round, clear, and grey, with a black pupil. The fore legs are ſhorter and weaker than thoſe behind, and have five toes, three of which are armed with nails, but the two others are without. The hinder feet are larger and thicker, and have only four toes. Over the eyes are two hard, ſcaly knobs, as big a man's fiſt; and, from the head to the tail, are a multitude of hard knotty ſcales. Theſe ſcales, with which the whole body is covered, are impenetrable to a muſket-ball, unleſs it happens to hit him in the belly. The fleſh ſmells very ſtrong of muſk, eſpecially four cods or kernels, two placed in the groin, near the thigh, and the other two at the breaſt, one under each fore leg, about the ſize of a pullet's egg. During the time they lie baſking on the ſhore, their huge mouths are wide open, till filled with muſketoes, flies, and other inſects; when, ſuddenly ſhutting their jaws, they ſwallow their prey. They generally avoid a man, and, on the approach of any one, plunge into the water. The female makes a large hole in the ſand, near the brink of a river, and in it depoſits her eggs, which are almoſt as large as thoſe of an oſtrich, and as white as thoſe of a hen, but much more ſolid. She generally lays about a hundred, continuing in the ſame place till they are all depoſited, which is about a day or two.

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She not only covers them with ſand; but, the better to conceal them, rolls herſelf over them, even to a conſiderable diſtance, and then returns to the water, till natural inſtinct informs her that it is time to deliver her young from their confinement. When ſhe comes to the ſpot, ſhe is followed by the male; ſhe then tears up the ſand, and begins breaking the eggs, with ſuch care, that ſcarce a ſingle one is injured, and a whole ſwarm of little alligators are ſeen crawling about. She then takes them on her neck and back, to remove them into the water; but the watchful gallinazos ſeize this opportunity to deprive her of ſome; and even the male alligator, which indeed comes for no other purpoſe, devours what he can, till the female has reached the water with the few remaining; and then all that fall from her back, and do not ſwim, ſhe herſelf eats; whence, of this formidable brood, happily no more than four or five eſcape. The gallinazos, of which we have juſt given a deſcription, contribute greatly to prevent their increaſe; for being extremely fond of their eggs, they, upon this occaſion, make uſe of extraordinary addreſs, and often make it their ſole buſineſs to watch the females during the dry ſeaſon, when they lay their eggs, the ſides of the river not being then covered with water. The gallinazo keeps itſelf concealed among the branches of ſome tree, till the alligator has laid her eggs and is retired; but ſhe is no ſooner under the water, than the gallinazo darts down on the repoſitory, and, with it's beak, claws, and wings, tears up the ſand, and devours the eggs, leaving only the ſhells. This banquet would richly reward it's long patience, did not a multitude of gallinazos, from all parts, join the fortunate diſcoverer, and take a ſhare in the ſpoil. Theſe eggs, when freſh, are alſo eat by the mu-

lattoes. Thus Providence graciouſly diminiſhes the number of theſe deſtructive animals, which would ſoon increaſe ſo faſt, that neither the river, nor the neighbouring fields, would be able to contain them.

THESE deſtructive animals uſe great addreſs in catching fiſh, which is their principal food: eight or ten, as if by agreement, drawing up at the mouth of a creek or river, while others go a conſiderable diſtance up, and chace the fiſh downwards; by which means none of a large ſize are able to eſcape them. The alligators, being unable to eat under water, on ſeizing a fiſh, raiſe their head above the ſurface, and, after ſatisfying their appetite, lay themſelves on the banks. When they cannot find fiſh, they betake themſelves to the meadows near a river, and devour colts and calves. This is done in the night, in order to ſurpriſe them in their ſleep; and it is obſervable that thoſe which have once taſted fleſh, become ſo fond of it, as never to feed upon fiſh, but in caſes of neceſſity. There, are, indeed, many melancholy inſtances of their devouring the human ſpecies, eſpecially children, who are out of doors in the dark; and, having once ſeized them in their mouths, they make ſure of their prey, againſt that aſſiſtance which the cries of the victim conſtantly bring, by haſtening into the water, where they immediately drown it, and then, riſing to the ſurface, devour it at leiſure. The boatmen, by inconſiderately ſleeping, with one of their arms or legs over the ſide of a boat, have been ſeized by theſe animals, and the whole body drawn into the water. Thoſe alligators, who have once feaſted on human fleſh, are known to be moſt dangerous, and are ſaid to entertain an inſatiable deſire of repeating the ſame repaſt. Hence the inhabitants of the

places

places where they abound, are very induſtrious in deſtroying them. For this purpoſe, they uſually take a piece of hard wood, ſharpened at both ends; this they faſten in the middle to a thong, the end of which is ſecured on the ſhore, and then bait the wood with the lights of ſome animal. The alligator, on ſeeing the lights floating on the water, ſnaps at the bait, and, both points of the wood entering his jaws, he is dragged on ſhore, with his mouth wide open. He then endeavours, with all his might, to reſcue himſelf, while the Indians bait him, knowing the greateſt damage he can do them, is to throw down thoſe, who, for want of agility or care, do not keep out of his reach.

BUT the moſt ſurpriſing relations travellers entertain us with are concerning the multitude and monſtrous ſize of the ſerpents of Braſil. We are told of ſome that are thirty feet long or upwards, and as big about as a hogſhead, ſo that they can ſwallow at once a whole buck or a man, and eaſily take either of them by throwing their tails round them; and hence this frightful creature has obtained the name of the roebuck ſerpent. Nay, to carry the matter ſtill farther, we are likewiſe told of a water ſnake in Braſil, near forty feet long, and every way proportionable, in whoſe body were found two wild boars he had ſwallowed.

THOUGH theſe accounts may be exaggerated, it is certain that Braſil is remarkable for large ſerpents and other venomous creatures. There is one called ibaboka, which is between three and four yards long, and of a conſiderable thickneſs. It's colours are various, as black, white, red, green, &c. and it's bite mortal, but the poiſon works the ſloweſt of any. On the other hand they have a little four-legged animal of ſo venomous a nature, that it's ſting is abſolutely mortal, unleſs

the part be immediately cut off, or burnt with a red-hot iron. Some of their ſcorpions are four or five feet long, but their ſting is not reckoned ſo dangerous as thoſe in Europe. They have alſo lizards three or four feet in length, and in great numbers.

ONE of the moſt common ſnakes, in the government of Carthagena, is the coral-ſnake, which is generally between four and five feet in length, and an inch in diameter. It makes a very beautiful appearance, the ſkin being variegated with green, yellow, and a vivid crimſon. The head is long and flat like a viper; and each mandible furniſhed with a row of pointed teeth; through which, during the bite, they inſinuate the poiſon, which is moſt dreadfully malignant; the perſon bit ſwelling to ſuch a degree, that the blood guſhes out through all the organs of ſenſe, and even the coats of the veins, at the extremities of the fingers, burſt.

THE willow-ſnake reſembles, in colour and form, a ſtick of that tree; theſe are very common; and, as they frequently hang from the boughs, really ſeem to be a part of the tree, till a too near approach unhappily diſcovers the miſtake. Though it's poiſon is leſs active than that of the coral-ſnake, it's bite proves mortal, unleſs a remedy be ſpeedily applied.

THE centepee or ſcolopendra, which received the firſt of theſe names from the great number of their feet, are not only very numerous, but of a monſtrous ſize at Carthagena; and are more dangerous from their breeding in the houſes: for they are generally a yard in length, and ſome a yard and a quarter, with about five inches in breadth. The back and ſides are covered with hard ſcales of a brown colour, tinged with red; but ſo articulated

ticulated as not in the leaſt to impede their motion; and yet ſo ſtrong as to defend them againſt any blow; ſo that you can only kill them by ſtriking them on the head. They are very nimble, and their bite, without timely application, proves mortal.

AFTER mentioning theſe reptiles, it will be proper to take notice of an inſect extremely remarkable for the venom it contains. It's common name is coyba or coya: in it's ſhape it reſembles a ſpider, but is much leſs than a bug. It is found in the government of Popayan in Terra Firma, or New Caſtile. It's colour is of a fiery red, and, like the ſpider, is uſually found in the corners of walls, and among the herbage. It's venom is ſo extremely malignant, that on ſqueezing the inſect, if any of it happen to fall on the ſkin, either of man or beaſt, it inſtantly penetrates into the fleſh, and produces large tumours, that are ſoon ſucceeded by death. The only remedy hitherto known is, on the firſt appearance of a ſwelling, to ſinge the party all over the body, with flaming ſtraw, or the long graſs growing in thoſe plains, where they are found. For this purpoſe, the Indians of that country lay hold of the patient, ſome by the feet, and others by the hands; and with great dexterity perform the operation; after which the perſon is thought to be out of danger. Though this inſect is ſo very noxious, yet ſqueezing it between the palms of the hands is attended with no ill conſequence, the callus preventing the venom reaching the blood; accordingly the Indian muletteers, in order to gratify the curioſity of the paſſengers, ſqueeze them between the palms of their hands; but, ſhould a perſon unuſed to labour make that experiment, the effect would probably be nearly the ſame, as on any other part of the

body. The people who travel along the vallies of Neyba, and others within the juriſdiction of Popayan, where they are in great danger from theſe coybas, are warned by the Indians who attend them, that, if they feel any thing ſtinging or crawling on their neck or face, to take care not to ſcratch, nor even to lift up their hand to it, the coyba being of ſo delicate a texture, that it would inſtantly burſt; and as there is no danger, while they do not eject the humour they contain, the perſon acquaints ſome of the company with what he feels, and points to the place, where, if it be a coyba, the other blows it away. It is remarkable, that the beaſts, who are incapable of ſuch warning, are by inſtinct, taught a precaution againſt the danger; for, before they offer to touch the herbage with their lips, they blow on it with all their force, in order to diſperſe any of thoſe pernicious vermin; and when their ſmell acquaints them, that they are near a neſt of coybas, they immediately leap, and run to ſome other part; but ſometimes a mule after all his blowing, has been known to take in ſome with his paſture; on which, after ſwelling to a frightful degree, it expires on the ſpot.

BUILDINGS.

THE reader will not expect any thing very extraordinary under this head, in a part of the world whoſe inhabitants have been generally ſuppoſed impolite and barbarous: but, as the incas or ingas of Peru are famous in hiſtory, it may not be amiſs to give a ſhort account of ſome of the noble ſtructures which the Spaniards found when they firſt invaded that country. At that time Cuſco was the capital of the kingdom, and there

there was a caſtle built in ſuch a ſurpriſing manner that many people, who ſaw it, imagined it could not have been raiſed without the aſſiſtance of inchantment. This fortreſs ſtood on the top of a hill, and on the edge of a precipice, which towards the town was perfectly perpendicular. Towards the country it was defended by triple ſemicircular walls, of ſuch height and thickneſs, that they were proof againſt all the force that could be brought againſt them. Some of the ſtones, were of ſuch a prodigious ſize, that it was inconceivable how they were hewn out of the quarry, or brought to the place, the natives having no iron tools, no beaſt to draw them, nor engines to raiſe them to ſuch a height. They were dragged, however, by the ſtrength of men, ten, twelve, or fifteen leagues, over hills and valleys, and along the moſt difficult roads; and there is one ſtone in particular, to which the Indians give the name of Syacuſa, that is the Weary, becauſe it never arrived at the place for which it was deſigned. This rock was drawn fifteen leagues by twenty thouſand Indians, over very rugged and uneven ways; but, notwithſtanding all their care and ſtrength, it got the better of them, and tumbling down the hill killed ſeveral hundred men, who were endeavouring to poiſe the weight. They raiſed it however once again, and with incredible pains dragged it to the plain in the neighbourhood of Cuſco, where they were obliged to leave it, never being able to get it up the hill on which the caſtle was ſituated.

BETWEEN each wall of the caſtle there was a ſpace of twenty-five or thirty feet, which was filled up with earth, and every wall had a breaſt-work on the top of it. Beyond theſe walls were three large towers, ſtanding in a triangle, anſwerable

to the bending of the walls. The principal of theſe towers had a fountain of excellent water, brought to it by a ſubterraneous aqueduct, the ſource whereof was only known to the inca and his council, leſt an enemy ſhould diſcover the ſtream, and cut it off in caſe of a ſiege. This tower was round, and in it the inca had an apartment, nobly furniſhed like the reſt of his palaces. The other two were ſquare, and contained rooms for the garriſon, who were all of the royal blood. Underneath theſe towers were apartments as large as thoſe above; and they had a communication with each other by a ſubterraneous labyrinth through which it was difficult for a ſtranger to find his way without a guide. It it ſaid that great part of the new city of Cuſco was built with the ſtones found in the ruins of this fortreſs.

THE palaces of the incas in Cuſco, beſides the caſtle juſt mentioned, were very ſpacious and magnificent, ſome of the halls being two hundred paces in length, and fifty or ſixty in breadth; inſomuch that the Spaniards converted one of them into a cathedral church. The ſtones of theſe buildings were ſo well joined together that they needed no cement; but ſometimes, for the ſake of ornament they cloſed up the ſeams of their ſtructures, with melted gold and ſilver, which occaſioned the total deſtruction of moſt of them, the Spaniards ſubverting the very foundations in hopes of finding treaſure. The furniture and decorations of theſe palaces were the figures of men, beaſts, birds, and other animals, caſt in gold; and on the walls, inſtead of tapeſtry, were plants and flowers of the ſame metal, intermixed with ſerpents, butterflies, and other reptiles and inſects. It is ſaid they had no chairs in their palaces, but the Inca himſelf ſat on a ſtool made of

of gold, without arms or back, having a pedeſtal of the ſame metal: They had alſo ciſterns of gold in their bagnios, and the utenſils of their kitchens, and in the meaneſt offices, were likewiſe of gold; but they neither purchaſed houſes nor lands with this metal, as we do; but uſed it as an ornament when living, and buried it with them when they died. The royal gardens were not only planted with great variety of trees, flowers, &c. but the figures of thoſe and all ſorts of animals were made of gold, and placed in the walks to adorn them.

HOWEVER, notwithſtanding the magnificence of the palaces in Cuſco, nothing was comparable to the temple of the ſun, which was inriched with the greateſt treaſures that ever the world beheld. It was built of free-ſtone, and lined with gold, the cieling being alſo of the ſame metal, though the roof itſelf was no better than common thatch. It was divided into ſeveral chapels, cloyſters, or apartments; in the principal whereof, towards the eaſt, was placed the image of the Sun, conſiſting of one gold-plate that covered the whole breadth of the chapel, and twice as thick as the plates that covered the other walls. This image was of a round form, repreſenting the Sun with his rays darting from him, much in the ſame manner as he is drawn by European painters; and on each ſide of it were placed the bodies of the deceaſed incas, ſo embalmed that they ſeemed to be alive. Theſe were placed on thrones of gold, but on the arrival of the Spaniards they were concealed by the Indians, with moſt of the treaſures of the temple.

THIS temple had ſeveral gates covered with gold; and round the top of it, on the outſide, was a cornice a yard deep, conſiſting of gold plate. Beſides the chapel of the ſun, there were

five others of a pyramidical form, the firſt of which was dedicated to the Moon, deemed the ſiſter and wife of the Sun; and the doors and walls of this ſtructure were covered with ſilver. Here was the image of the Moon, of a round form, with a woman's face in the middle of it; and on each ſide of the image were placed the bodies of the deceaſed empreſſes ranged in order. Next to this chapel was that of Venus, by the Peruvians called Chaſea, who was much eſteemed as an attendant on the Sun, as the reſt of the ſtars were deemed maids of honour to the Moon; and this chapel was likewiſe plated with ſilver. The third chapel was dedicated to thunder and lightning, which they looked upon as ſervants of the Sun; and this was cieled and wainſcoted with plates of gold. The fourth was dedicated to the rainbow, as owing it's original to the ſun; and this was alſo covered with gold, and had on one ſide of it a repreſentation of the rainbow. The fifth chapel was an apartment for the uſe of the high-prieſt, and others who officiated in the the temple, who were all of the royal blood; and this, like the chapel of the Sun, was adorned with gold.

THERE was no other image worſhipped in the temple but that of the Sun, but they had the figures of men, women, and children, and of various birds, beaſts, and other animals of wrought gold, placed in it for ornament; and all the veſſels and utenſils were of the ſame precious metal. We likewiſe read of a ſort of nunnery wherein were kept a thouſand or fifteen hundred virgins, all of the blood of the emperors, who were intended only for the ſervice of the temple. Nor was it only in the city of Cuſco that a temple was erected, but almoſt every large town in the country had one adorned in the like ſumptuous manner.

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THUS much we thought proper to ſay, in ord e to give the reader ſome idea of the grandeur o the Peruvian monarchy, before it was ſubdued and brought under the Spaniſh yoke.

Of the Inhabitants of SOUTH AMERICA.

WERE we fully to deſcribe the cuſtoms and manners of all the ſeveral nations that inhabit this vaſt country, it would fill a volume; we ſhall therefore here only treat of the principal.

THE inhabitants of Lima conſiſt of Spaniards, Indians, Negroes, Meſtizos, and a variety of other caſts, proceeding from the mixture of all three. The Spaniards, who make the greateſt figure, have a multitude of ſlaves and other domeſtics, and keep coaches; while others are ſatisfied with having a chaiſe, no family of any ſubſtance being without one. Theſe carriages are drawn by a mule guided by a driver, and have only two wheels, with two ſeats oppoſite to each other; they are very light and airy, and, on account of their carving and gilding, ſometimes coſt eight hundred or a thouſand crowns. There are ſaid to be no leſs than five or ſix thouſand of theſe vehicles kept in the city of Lima. The Negroes, Mulattoes, and their deſcendants, form the principal part of the inhabitants of that city; and of theſe are moſt of the mechanics. The Europeans alſo follow the ſame employments, for, the deſire of gain being here the univerſal paſſion, the inhabitants purſue it by all poſſible means.

THE dreſs of the men, in general, is little different from that worn in Spain; nor is there much diſtinction between the ſeveral claſſes, every body being allowed to wear whatever he can purchaſe; ſo that a mulatto, or any other mecha-

nic, is frequently ſeen dreſſed in rich tiſſue. Every body at Lima are fond of fine cloaths, and extremely laviſh in this article. But the dreſs of the men is greatly exceeded by that of the women, who, in the choice of their laces, carry their taſte to an amazing exceſs; and this has ſpread through all ranks, except the loweſt claſs of Negroes; and no woman of rank will wear any that is not made in Flanders. The dreſs of the ladies conſiſts of a pair of ſhoes, ſtockings, a ſhift, a dimity petticoat, and a jacket; which in ſummer is of linnen, and, in winter, of a beautiful ſtuff. From the under pettycoat, which only reaches to the calf of the leg, hangs a border of very fine lace, through which the ends of their garters are diſcovered, embroidered with gold or ſilver, and ſometimes adorned with pearls. The upper petticoat, which is of velvet, or ſome rich ſtuff, is fringed all round, and all over adorned with fringe, lace, or embroidery. The ſhift-ſleeves, which are a yard and a half in length, and two wide, when worn for ornament, are covered with lace, ſo as to render the whole truly elegant. Over the ſhift is worn the jacket, which has large circular ſleeves, conſiſting of rows of lace, or ſlips of cambric, with lace diſpoſed between each. The body of the jacket is tied on the ſhoulders, with ribbons faſtened to the back of the ſtays; and it's round ſleeves, being tucked up to the ſhoulders, form, with thoſe of the ſhift, what may be termed four wings. In ſummer they have a kind of veil of the fineſt cambric or lawn, richly laced; but, in winter, the veil worn in their houſes is of bays, which, when they go abroad full dreſſed, is adorned like the ſleeves. Over the petticoat is an apron of the ſame ſtuff as the ſleeves of the jacket. In ſhort, they are ſo expenſive in their dreſs, that the marriage-

marriage-ſhift alone, frequently coſts a thouſand crowns. Their ſhoes which have round toes, are always faſtened with diamond buckles, or ſomething very brilliant, in proportion to the ability of the wearer. Their hair, which is naturally black, and capable of reaching below the waiſt, they tie up behind in ſix braided locks, through which is inſerted a gold bodkin, a little bent, with a cluſter of diamonds at each end; and on this the locks are ſuſpended, ſo as juſt to touch the ſhoulders. On the front and upper part of the head, they wear diamond egrets, and the hair is formed into little curls, hanging from the forehead, to the middle of the ears, with a large black patch of velvet on each temple. Their ear-rings are of brilliants, intermixed with tufts of black ſilk, covered with pearls; and, beſides their necklaces, they wear roſaries about their necks, the beads of which are of pearls, either ſeparate, or ſet in cluſters. Their diamond rings, necklaces, girdles, and bracelets, are all very curious, both with regard to water and ſize; many ladies wear a round jewel enriched with diamonds, ſuſpended from their girdle, and much more ſuperb than their other ornaments. In ſhort, a lady thus dreſſed is ſuppoſed to wear, at one time, what coſts no leſs than thirty or forty thouſand crowns; and yet the ſmall value they ſeem to ſet upon them, by wearing them upon all occaſions, is really ſurpriſing.

THE women of Lima are generally of a middling ſtature, handſome, genteel, with a remarkable luſtre in their eyes; and the charms of their perſons are ſaid to be heigthened by thoſe of the mind, they having clear and comprehenſive intellects, with an eaſy and graceful behaviour that commands both love and reſpect; but are ſo

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fond of perfumes that they conſtantly carry ambergriſe about them; and, not content with the natural fragrance of flowers, of which they are likewiſe extremely fond, ſcatter perfumes even on their noſegays. The moſt beautiful flowers they place in their hair, and thoſe moſt eſteemed, for their fragrance, they ſtick in their ſleeves. Hence the effluvia iſſuing from theſe ladies reach to a conſiderable diſtance. The lower claſs of women, even to the very Negroes, endeavour as much as poſſible, to imitate their ſuperiors, in the faſhion and richneſs of their dreſs; and their cleanlineſs is ſeen in the extraordinary neatneſs of their houſes. They are naturally gay, ſprightly and jocoſe, without levity, remarkably fond of muſic, and, having, in general, good voices, the loweſt among them, entertain you with agreeable ſongs.

THE nobility are extremely courteous to ſtrangers, who are charmed with their probity, their politeneſs, candour, and magnificence. The natives of an inferior rank are ſaid to have too great a ſhare of pride, but are ſo grateful, that a few inſtances of kindneſs, make a laſting impreſſion on their minds: however, the Mulattoes, being leſs civilized, are haughty, quarrelſome, and turbulent.

THE viceroy of Lima uſually reſides in that city; his government is triennial; he has all the prerogatives of royalty, he being abſolute in all affairs, whether military, civil, criminal, or relating to the revenue. Under him are officers and tribunals, for executing the ſeveral departments of government; and he fills up all the vacant poſts. For the ſecurity of his perſon, he has a body of a hundred and ſixty horſe-guards, under the command of a captain and lieutenant, all in a blue uniform, richly laced with ſilver: a body of

fifty

fifty halberdeers ſtationed in the rooms leading to the royal audience-chamber, whoſe waiſtcoats are of crimſon velvet, with a broad gold lace: he has likewiſe, within his palace, another guard, conſiſting of a detachment from the garriſon at Callao. All theſe are occaſionally employed in executing his orders, and inforcing the decrees of the tribunals, after their having received his aſſent.

THOUGH the plague and many other diſeaſes, that produce the moſt fatal effects in Europe, are here unknown, yet they have others that are no leſs fatal and painful. The moſt common at Lima are malignant, intermitting, and catarrhous fevers, conſtipations, pleuriſies, and convulſions. Theſe laſt are extremely dreadful, and are divided into two kinds, the common or partial, and the malignant. They both come when nature is ſtruggling in the criſis of ſome acute diſeaſe; but thoſe afflicted with the former often recover, though the greater part die on the third or fourth day; while thoſe who have the misfortune of being attacked by the latter, ſink under it in two or three days. Both are attended with inſupportable anguiſh; ſo that the groaning patient cannot be moved even from one ſide to the other, without inconceivable tortures. The throat is ſo contracted that nothing can be conveyed into the ſtomach; and the jaws are ſometimes ſo cloſely ſhut, that it is impoſſible to open them. Thus the miſerable patient lies motionleſs, and tortured in every part of his body. The malignant kind is even in the firſt ſtage ſo violent, as to cauſe a contraction of the nerves of the vertebræ from the brain downwards; which, with all the muſcles, become more and more conſtricted all over the body, till it is drawn backward in the form of an arch, and all the joints diſlocated. The women of Lima are ſubject to a cancer

cancer in the matrix, which is extremely painful, very contagious, and almoſt incurable. Slow and hectic fevers alſo prevail here; and the venereal diſeaſe is ſo common in this and all the other parts of Spaniſh America, that it is conſidered as no diſhonour, few being intirely free from it.

SOME ſingularities are to be obſerved among the Spaniards in the different cities in South America; but they are generally, in moſt reſpects, like thoſe of Lima; we ſhall therefore, inſtead of continuing a ſubject, that would ſoon grow tireſome, lead our readers attention to the manners and cuſtoms of the Indians in the audience of Quito. Theſe people, at preſent, ſeem to have no reſemblance to thoſe firſt found in the country; and, at preſent, poſſeſs a tranquillity, which no accident can diſturb. In their mean apparel, they are as ſatisfied as a prince in the moſt ſplendid robes: they diſregard riches, and even the authority and power within their reach; ſo that, to all appearance, it ſeems to be the ſame to an Indian, whether he be created an alcalde, or obliged to perform the office of an executioner; for their regard for each other is neither increaſed nor diminiſhed by ſuch circumſtances; and they are as well ſatisfied with their ſimple diet, as others with the moſt luxurious repaſts. Fear cannot ſtimulate, reſpect induce, or puniſhment compel them, to ſhake off their natural indolence; and, as ſcarcely any thing can prevail on them to work, whatever is neceſſary to be done is left to the Indian women, who, being much more active, ſpin and make the half ſhirts and drawers, which form the only apparel of their huſbands; they likewiſe cook the proviſions, grind barley, and brew a kind of beer, called chicha; while the huſband ſits ſquatting on his hams, looking at his buſy wife.

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The only domeſtic ſervice they perform is to plow their little ſpot of land, which is ſowed by the wife. When they have once ſquatted down, no reward can induce them to ſtir; ſo that, ſhould a traveller, who had loſt his way, come to one of their cottages, the wife muſt ſay that he is not at home. If he ſhould alight and enter the cottage, the Indian would ſtill be ſafe; for, having no light but what comes from a hole through the door, he could not be diſcovered; and, ſhould he even ſee the Indian, neither intreaties, nor rewards, would induce him to ſtir a ſtep. They are lively only in parties of pleaſure, rejoicings, entertainments, and eſpecially dancing; but the liquor muſt circulate briſkly, and they continue drinking, till they are intirely deprived of ſenſe and motion. Yet it is remarkable that the Indian women and the young men, before they are of an age to contract matrimony, are never guilty of this vice, it being a maxim with them, that drunkenneſs is the privilege of none but maſters of families, who have others to take care of them when they can take no care of themſelves.

On the celebration of any ſolemnity, he who gives the entertainment, invites all his acquaintance, providing a jug of chicha for each, containing two gallons. If it be a large town, a table is placed in the court of the houſe; or, if it be in a village, before the cottage; this is covered with a carpet only uſed on ſuch occaſions, and upon it is placed a ſlight repaſt. The women preſent the chicha to their huſbands in calabaſhes, till their ſpirits are raiſed, and then one plays upon his pipe and tabor, while others dance. Some of the beſt voices among the Indian women ſing ſongs in their own language, thoſe who do not dance ſquat down till it comes to their turn, and,

and, when tired with intemperance and dancing, they all lie down together. Theſe feſtivities ſometimes continue three or four days, till the prieſt, coming among them, ſpills all the chicha, and diſperſes the Indians, leſt they ſhould get more.

IN their cottages, both they and the animals they breed live together. As they are fond of dogs, they are never without three or four, a hog or two, and a few poultry. Theſe, with ſome earthen-ware, as pots and jugs, with the cotton which their wives ſpin, are all their effects, except two or three ſheep-ſkins, which ſerve them for beds. Though the Indian women breed fowl and other domeſtic animals in their cottages, they will neither eat nor ſell them: ſo that, if a traveller, who is obliged to paſs the night in one of their cottages, offers ever ſo much money for a fowl, they refuſe to part with it, and he is obliged to kill the fowl himſelf, at which the good woman ſhrieks and burſts into tears, till, ſeeing no remedy for what is paſt, ſhe wipes her eyes, and quietly takes what the traveller offers her.

As in their journeys they frequently take their whole family with them, they faſten the door, with a ſtring or thong of leather, which ſerves for a lock; and, if their journey is to laſt ſeveral days, they take their animals to the cottage of ſome neighbour or acquaintance; if otherwiſe, they leave their dogs to guard them; and theſe diſcharge their truſt with ſuch fidelity, that they will fly at any one, except their maſters, who offers to enter the cottage. It is obſerved, that dogs, bred by the Spaniards and Meſtizos, have ſuch a hatred to the Indians, that, if one of them approaches a houſe where he is not very well known, they fall upon him, and, if not called off, tear him to pieces; for they know them at a diſtance

tance by their ſcent. On the other hand, the dogs of the Indian breed are animated with the ſame rage againſt the Spaniards and Meſtizos, whom they alſo ſmell at a diſtance.

THE Indians of this country act contrary to all other nations in their marriages; for they never chuſe a woman who has not been firſt known by ſome body elſe, which they conſider as a certain ſign of her having ſomething pleaſing in her. A young man having aſked the object of his affections, of her father, and obtained his conſent, they immediately begin to live together as man and wife. But, at the end of three or four months, and frequently of a year, he leaves her without any ceremony, and perhaps expoſtulates with his father-in-law, for impoſing upon him, by giving him his daughter, whom no body elſe had thought worthy of making his bedfellow. But, if nothing of this happens, after paſſing three or four months in this commerce, they then marry. This cuſtom is ſtill very common, though the whole body of the clergy have uſed their utmoſt endeavours to put a ſtop to it; and accordingly they always abſolve them of that ſin, before they give him the nuptial benediction.

THESE Indians ſhew their intrepidity upon many occaſions, eſpecially in the alacrity and reſolution with which they halter a bull or bear at full ſpeed; for a ſingle Indian, with only a horſe and his nooſe, never fails of getting the better of all the cunning and rage of the moſt furious bear. This nooſe is made of a cow-hide, ſo thin as not to be ſeized by the beaſt's paw, and ſtrong enough not to be broken by his ſtruggling. On perceiving this animal, they directly make towards him, while he rears himſelf up, in order to ſeize the horſe. But the Indian, being advanced within a proper diſtance, throws the nooſe about the bear's neck,

and,

and, faſtening the other end to the ſaddle, inſtantly claps ſpurs to his horſe; and the bear, unable to run ſo faſt as he gallops, and ſtruggling to get free, is choaked. In ſhort, great part of the ruſticity of the Indians is owing to the want of education; for, where they have enjoyed that advantage, they are found to have as good rational faculties as other men. Hence all the Indians, brought up to handicraft trades in cities and large towns, appear far more acute and ſenſible than thoſe who have paſt their lives in little villages; and many of theſe diſtinguiſh themſelves by their genius and abilities.

AMONG the ſingular manners and cuſtoms of the ſeveral nations of South America, we ought not to omit the extraordinary government of the Jeſuits in Paraguay, who have above three hundred and forty thouſand families ſubject to them, and living in an obedience and awe, bordering upon adoration; yet procured without any violence or conſtraint, and cemented by their having engaged to protect them againſt the inſolence of the Spaniſh ſoldiers, the tyranny of the governors, and the inhuman inroads of the Portugueſe. The Paraguay miſſions are terminated on all ſides by nations of idolaters, and conſiſt of about ſixty pariſhes, on the banks of the rivers Paraguay and Panama, at about thirty miles diſtance from each other. In each of theſe pariſhes is a Jeſuit, who is ſupreme in all cauſes, civil, military, and eccleſiaſtic, and may be conſidered as a petty prince, who, has the authority of a ſovereign, and the influence of an oracle. Yet the important office of governor is always filled up by a perſon choſen by the Indians, with the prieſt's approbation. The alcaldes are annually appointed by the regidores, and the governor, in conjunction with them, attends

tends to the maintainance of good order; but, as theſe officers, who are Indians, may, either through intereſt or paſſion, carry their reſentment too far againſt the other Indians, they are not to proceed to puniſhment without acquainting the prieſt, who, on finding the perſon really guilty, delivers him up to be puniſhed, which generally conſiſts in impriſonment for a certain number of days; faſting is ſometimes added to it, but, if the fault be very great, the delinquent is whipped, which is ſaid to be the ſevereſt puniſhment uſed among them. Before the execution of the ſentence, the prieſt repreſents, in the moſt mild and pathetic terms, the nature and guilt of the crime; by which means the delinquent is frequently brought to acknowlege the juſtice of the ſentence, and to receive it rather as a paternal correction, than a rigorous puniſhment.

In every town is an armory, in which are kept the fire arms, ſwords, and weapons, belonging to the militia, and which they uſe when they take the field, either to repel the inſults of the Portugueſe, or of the free Indians, on their frontiers; and that they may learn the uſe of them, they are exerciſed on the evening of every holiday, in the market-place of the towns. All capable of bearing arms, are, in every town, divided into companies under their proper officers, who owe their advancement to their military qualifications. Their uniform is laced with gold or ſilver, according to their rank, and embroidered with the device of their town; and in theſe they always appear on holidays, at the times of exerciſe.

The houſes of the Indians are built with ſuch ſymmetry and convenience, and ſo well furniſhed, as to excel thoſe of the Spaniards, in that part of America. However, moſt of them, have only mud walls, but ſome are of unburnt brick, and

others

others of ſtone; but they are generally covered with tiles. Gunpowder is ſaid to be made in all private houſes, that there may be no want of it, either for war, or for fire-works on holidays. In each of the towns is a houſe, in which women of ill fame are placed, and for the retreat of married women, who have no families, during the abſence of their huſbands. For the ſupport of this houſe, and alſo of the orphans and thoſe who, by age or any other circumſtance, are diſabled from earning their living, two days in the week are ſet apart, in which the inhabitants of every village are obliged to cultivate a piece of ground, and the ſurplus, after theſe are provided for, is applied to procure furniture and decorations for the church. By this benevolent plan all diſtreſs is precluded.

EVERY town has alſo a ſchool for teaching reading, writing, dancing, and muſic; and here the inclination and genius of every one is carefully conſulted, before he is forwarded in any branch of ſcience. In one of the courts of the houſe belonging to the prieſt, are work-rooms for painters, ſculptors, ſilver-ſmiths, lock-ſmiths, watch-makers, gilders, weavers, carpenters, and other mechanic arts, where the Indians work for the benefit of the whole town, under the inſpection of the prieſt's coadjutors; and boys are likewiſe inſtructed in the arts and trades, for which they are beſt qualified. That they may never want materials, the prieſt takes care to have always in readineſs a ſtock of different kinds of tools, ſtuffs, and other goods; ſo that all, who are in want, repair to him, bringing wax and other things in exchange, which are ſent by the prieſt to the ſuperior of the miſſions; and, with the produce, a freſh ſtock of goods is laid in. The prieſt alſo viſits the plantations, in order to prevent the ſlothful diſpoſition,

poſition, natural to the natives. He alſo attends ſlaughter-houſes, where cattle are daily killed, large herds of which are kept for public uſe, and their fleſh diſtributed by the prieſt in lots, proportioned to the number of perſons in each family; and, in ſhort, he viſits the ſick, to ſee that they want nothing neceſſary to their recovery.

THUS the civil government ſeems calculated to produce happineſs; and the eccleſiaſtical is no leſs extraordinary. The prieſt obliges the Indians of his diſtrict punctually to attend Divine ſervice on Sundays, and the children repair to the churches every morning, by break of day, where they take their places on oppoſite ſides according to their ſex. They there recite, alternately, the morning prayer, and chriſtian doctrine, till ſun-riſe, when maſs is celebrated, at which all the inhabitants are obliged to attend, without a ſufficient reaſon for their abſence. After maſs all go to work, and, in the evening, the children aſſemble to be catechiſed, and the adults to pray. Marriages are, for the greater ſolemnity, celebrated on Sundays, when high maſs is ſung, and an exhortation to the married pair is pronounced from the pulpit; a liſt is then called over, to ſee who is abſent; and penance is impoſed on all treſpaſſes committed in the pariſh.

THE pariſh churches in Paraguay are capacious, rich, elegant, and ſplendidly adorned; the eye is attracted with the gilding and painting, and the magnificence of the utenſils uſed in religious worſhip, which are of gold and ſilver, many of them curiouſly emboſſed and ſet with precious ſtones. Very handſome galleries are erected on one ſide the altar for the civil magiſtrates, and, on the other, for the military officers, while all the vulgar are ſeated in great order, on ſeats round

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the area. Every church has it's band, compoſed of a conſiderable number of performers in vocal and inſtrumental muſic; and religious worſhip is celebrated in them with all the pomp obſerved in cathedrals. Public proceſſions are conducted with the utmoſt ſplendor, eſpecially that of Corpus Chriſti day, at which the governor, alcaldes, and regidores, aſſiſt in their habits of ceremony, and the militia in their uniforms; while the reſt of the people carry flambeaux: theſe proceſſions are alſo accompanied with dancing, and the performers wear particular dreſſes, extremely rich, and adapted to the characters repreſented. In ſhort, every thing relating to religion is contrived to ſtrike the ſenſes, and captivate the imagination of the weak and ſuperſtitious. The houſe, or rather palace of the prieſt, is grand, ſpacious, and conſtructed in the form of a church, in order to ſtrike the people with religious awe and reverence: it conſiſts of different apartments adapted to the various offices of the prieſt, as an eccleſiaſtical and civil magiſtrate. Every morning after prayers is devoted to hearing the complaints and redreſſing the grievances of thoſe who demand an audience. At noon he hears confeſſions, and grants abſolutions, in which he is extremely rigid and exact. In the afternoon he walks abroad, inſpects public and private affairs, and ſuperintends the labour of his pariſhioners; while evening is devoted to catechiſing and diſcourſing on moral and religious ſubjects. This regularity is ſaid to produce an aſtoniſhing effect on the minds and morals of the Indians, who are punctual in their religious duties, faithful in their dealings, charitable to the diſtreſſed, humble, obedient, and induſtrious, in a much ſuperior degree than could be reaſonably expected from a people naturally indolent and ſlothful.

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THE miſſionary fathers will not allow any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meſtizos, or even Indians, to come within their miſſions, in Paraguay. This, ſay their friends, is not with a view of concealing their tranſactions from the world, but to prevent their Indians being corrupted by the example of others. However, their vigilance and jealouſy have given birth to many unfavourable reports; for, if a ſtranger, in ſpite of all their precautions, ſhould enter the country, he is immediately ſecured by the ſuperior of the pariſh, a houſe is aſſigned him, and every ſatisfaction, except his liberty, is generouſly allowed him. If the prieſt ſhould permit him to ſee the town, it is always in his own company, and after notice has been given to the inhabitants to keep cloſe in their houſes; and an opportunity no ſooner offers, for embarking at Buenos Ayres, than the ſtranger is ſent thither, under a guard of Indians, who are entire ſtrangers to every European language; whence it is impoſſible for them to give him any intelligence of the ſtate of the country.

WE ſhall now take a view of the inhabitants of Braſil, who are compoſed of Portugueſe, Creoles, Negroes, and Braſilians. The Portugueſe, born in Europe, enjoy the places of truſt and profit, and are the feweſt in number: the Creoles, or thoſe born of Portugueſe parents in Braſil, are more numerous; and the Meſtizos, or mixed breed, are more numerous than either, few of the Portugueſe having been without black or tawny miſtreſſes; and, their iſſue having intermarried, they are multiplied extremely. The Negroes are likewiſe very numerous, and are much more valued than the Braſilians, from their being more robuſt and fitter for labour; the latter, indeed, are few

in number, the Portugueſe, in the invaſion of the country, like the Spaniards in their conqueſts, deſtroying the unfortunate natives by every method of cruelty.

THE moſt judicious travellers deſcribe the Portugueſe and Creoles of Braſil, as ſunk into the moſt effeminate luxury, and practiſing the moſt deſperate crimes; and, in ſhort, as hypocritical, diſſembling, lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet, they are, however, penurious; for, like the inhabitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they are fonder of ſhew, ſtate, and attendance, than of the pleaſures of free ſociety; yet their feaſts, which are ſeldom made, are extravagantly ſumptuous. This character, which is repreſented as particularly juſt, with reſpect to the Creoles, has been attributed to their being bred up among ſlaves, who perform all the buſineſs; and to their being permitted to keep a prodigious number of Negroes, not merely to work in the field, nor for domeſtic employments, but to attend their perſons, and form their train. Theſe they render as corrupt as themſelves, by making them the inſtruments of their crimes, and employing them as bullies or aſſaſſins, whenever they are diſpoſed to terrify or ſeek revenge. Nothing indeed can be more adapted to create the worſt diſorders, than the unnatural junction of ſlavery, idleneſs, and a licentious life. Theſe Negroes are ſuffered to go armed, and there are vaſt numbers who have either merited or bought their freedom; and this is allowed in a country where the Negroes are ſaid to be ten to one of the Portugueſe and Creoles.

THE Portugueſe call the Braſilians, who inhabit the north part of the country Tapuyers, and thoſe who dwell in the ſouth Tupinambes; but divide them into ſeveral petty nations, differing

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in language, though very little in their manners and cuſtoms. The Tapuyers are of a good ſtature, and of a dark copper colour, with black hair hanging over their ſhoulders; but they have none on their bodies or faces, and go almoſt naked, the women only wearing a ſlight covering of leaves round their waiſt. They are, however, adorned with glittering ſtones hung upon their lips or noſtrils, bracelets of feathers about their arms, and a circlet of feathers upon their heads. Some paint their bodies of all colours, while others, rubbing themſelves over with gum, ſtick beautiful feathers upon them, which makes them appear at a diſtance more like fowls than human creatures. The Tupinambes who inhabit the ſouth of Braſil are of a moderate ſtature, and a fairer complexion than their northern neighbours who lie nearer the line; but neither of them are ſo black as the Africans in the ſame latitude; for there were no Negroes in America before they were tranſported thither by the Portugueſe and Spaniards. Theſe people have, however, flat noſes, which are not natural, but made ſo in their infancy, a flat noſe being there eſteemed a beauty; they have alſo black curled hair on their heads, and paint themſelves like the northern Braſilians.

THEY have been repreſented by many writers as Cannibals, and all the Braſilians have been charged with eating human fleſh; but this appears to have been a ſlander caſt upon them, to give a colour to the cruel treatment they have met with from their conquerors; nor will the Portugueſe allow that they had any kind of religion, and yet confeſs that they had prieſts, and admitted of a ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, according to their valour or cowardice. Their prevailing religious notions are, that there are certain inviſible

beings, the diſpenſers of good and evil, the rewarders of virtue, and the puniſhers of vice; and that, after death, the good ſhall viſit their anceſtors who dwell in a delightful place beyond the Andes. They have always been remarkable for their hoſpitality and civility to ſtrangers: thoſe who live near the Portugueſe are a tractable and ingenious people, ready to learn any art or ſcience the Portugueſe will teach them; and take nothing ſo kindly of the prieſts as their inſtructing their children, which has given them an opportunity of making many converts; and, in ſhort, thoſe who live under the Portugueſe generally conform to their cuſtoms in eating, drinking, and cloathing.

BEFORE we leave the inhabitants of South America, it will be proper to obſerve that, from the late voyage made by commodore Byron round the world, there is undoubted teſtimony of there being a people on the moſt ſouthern extremity of America of a moſt extraordinary ſize. The commodore, with a number of his men, landed, and, after many amicable ſigns, preſented theſe people with a number of trinkets, as ſtrings of beads, ribbons, and the like. The commodore, to facilitate the diſtribution of them, made theſe Indians ſit down on the ground, that he might put the ſtrings of beads, &c. round their necks; and ſuch was their extraordinary ſize, that in this ſituation they were almoſt as high as the commodore. Their middle ſtature ſeemed to be about eight feet, their extreme nine and upwards. Their cloathing conſiſted of the ſkins of Peruvian ſheep, which reached from their ſhoulders down to their knees; and their hair was black, long, and flowing down behind. The ſtature of the women was equally ſurpriſing with that of the men, and their faces painted in a moſt extravagant manner. Some

of

of the women had collars on their necks, and bracelets on their arms; and the infants, who were carried by their mothers, had a largeneſs and ſtrength of features, which, conſidering their age, ſeemed to bear ſome proportion to thoſe of their parents. The people, thus gigantic in their ſize, appeared extremely humane and friendly. They had all the ſymptoms of a gentle and benevolent diſpoſition, and were ſo delighted with the different trinkets which they had an opportunity of viewing, as they hung on their necks and fell down on their boſoms, that the commodore could ſcarcely reſtrain them from careſſing him. They made ſigns to the commodore, and that part of the ſhip's crew which landed, to go with them towards ſome ſmoke which appeared at a diſtance, pointing to their mouths, as if they intended to give them ſome refreſhment; but it was thought improper to comply with this friendly invitation; and, when the Engliſh left them, they appeared diſtreſſed and afflicted. Theſe people have been mentioned by ſeveral authors, but there wanted ſufficient evidence of the truth of their real exiſtence, till the publication of a voyage round the world, under commodore Byron, which bears indubitable marks of authenticity.

The END of the FIFTH VOLUME.

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